WOMEN CAREER ORIENTATION

ARTI DURANI

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Gandhi Memorial College Of Education Bantalab Jammu

ABOUT THE BOOK

The book serves the important purpose for the rural as well as for the urban females because career plays an important role in one's life especially in life of women. Women has to play the dual role of home maker and career, but even after 60 years of independence women are not getting the proper share in Indian society and are lacking much behind than men. So it is necessary to make women aware of the career along with her family role especially the rural women. This book helps the women to make them aware about their career and thus helps them to be self dependent. This book will act as an important tool in the upliftment and empowerment of women.

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Women Career Orientation

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Foreward

It has given me immense pleasure to have through the contents of the book entitled "Career Orientation among Females" authored by Dr. Arti Durani. The book serves the important purpose of career awareness for the rural as well as for the urban females, because career plays an important role in one's life especially in life of women. Women has to play the dual role of home maker and career, but even after 64 years of independence women are not getting the proper share in Indian society and are lacking much behind than men. So, it is necessary to make women aware of the career along with her family role especially for rural women. This book helps the women to make them aware about their career and thus helps them to be self dependent. It is a commendable effort to Dr. Arti Durani who undertook a research study pertaining to career orientation of female college and university students including backward hilly regions of Jammu which is characteriticed by handicapts like problems of transportation, communication, accessibility to modern facilities, low literacy amongst its peoples. This study in the published form will not only be useful for teachers and educators working in backward areas of Doda, Poonch, rajouri, Badrewh, Kishwar, Kathua districts in the Jammu and Kashmir State bit also to politicians, policy makers and administrators also. The main objectives of the study were to compare the career orientation among the urban and rural colleges and university females and to know how to improve the career orientation among females.

The present publication is a description, of an interesting study that has been carefully conducted, using proper and rigorous statistical techniques including case studies in order to arrive at dependable conclusions. The findings of the study would help other researchers to develop more studies and build a body of sound knowledge in the field of career orientation in India.

The endeavors of Dr. Arti Durani for a venture in the field of career orientation among women is praise worthy and deserve congratulations.

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Preface

This book has been written keeping in view the inferior status of women. Women in India are treated as second grade citizens. They are not provided equal opportunity as that of men. Even in present India the literacy rate is increasing but at the same time the sex ratio is decreasing and at the same time girls in many regions is not allowed to go to school and to join profession. So this book will help the students to know what the hindrances that women are actually facing are in their day to day life and how to select the career and how to improve it.

Chapter I deal with conceptual framework which is essential for understanding the meaning of the career orientation and other relevant terms associated with it. It contains the brief discussion about the problem, the significance of the study, the objectives along with delimitations and operational definitions.

Chapter II deals with the review of related literature it includes the Indian and the foreign references. It also deals with the hypotheses that are framed for the study.

Chapter III pertains to the discussion of the procedure which was used by the investigator for the conduct of the study. It includes necessary details about the procedure of the sampling in selecting the students from various groups and the tools used for collecting necessary data along with the design of the study. It also contains the administration and scoring of the tool.

Chapter IV deals with the analysis and the interpretation of the date. It also includes the conclusions that are drawn from the study. This also pertains to the suggestions for the further research.

I am grateful to my colleagues and friends who directly or indirectly helped me in carrying this work. I am also indebted to various authors whose books and articles I consulted during the preparation of this work.

I have no words to express my gratitude to Prof. Lokesh Kaul and Dr. H.R. Shan who has really helped to me by head and heart to achieve the milestone. I am also thankful to my mother Smt. Phoola Durani and my husband Mr. Dinesh Mahajan who gave me every sort of cooperation and inspiration and sustained me during the long period of this works preparation.

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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

Women have primarily been associated with home and men with 'world of work'. This compartmentalization between home and work led to a gender differentiation of such an order that even in contemporary situations men and women are treated at different footings, particularly in developing and underdeveloped countries. India being no exception in the context of development – cultural, social, political, economic and psychological – women have been restrained in their quest for selfhood and autonomy.

In a social setting wherein sex discrimination and social stratification is prevailing, women have occupied and continue to occupy the place subordinate to men. Despite five decades of planning, constitutional commitment, laws and legislations passed since independence, programmes introduced to ameliorate the condition of women, they are still considered as deprived and disadvantaged since the gains of development have not been shared proportionately. This deprivation is so deeply rooted in Indian social ethos that the question of women's development has always been 'marginal' one. This marginality has affected the entire planning endeavor.

What is seen today in every field the lot of women is worse than men; women have less power, less autonomy, more work, less money and more responsibility, sharing a small proportion of developmental benefits. At the same time they shoulder primary responsibilities for rearing and upbringing children, and maintaining families.

There is a perceptible change in the outlook regarding women's development in view of increasing participation of

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women in workforce. Even the governmental programmees for women show, an upward mobility – from welfare to development. But truly this does not cover women of every sect.

Irrespective of awareness being created regarding the need to improve the condition of womenfolk, the situation seems to be bad, if not worse. Though women show high signs of positive growth in some areas of education as well as occupation, their social condition still remains a matter of concern.

The contemporary situation may be understood in the context of women in view of the position of women prevalent in the past when subordination and suppression were their common features as some laws and religions did not recognize equality; social set up of time did not permit right and freedom, and different norms were laid to judge their social conducts. This led to various disadvantages, which women had to face in real life situations. Also the share of women in terms of enrolment in higher education and employment was not at par with men, female students were opting for more traditional, less challenging and less rewarding areas due to social taboos which were affecting the selection of their professional courses. This was negatively impacting the rise in their career graph as less challenging jobs were less paid. Women with higher and technical qualification can contribute more to national development as a valuable asset but women were becoming a social liability under social compulsions and social responsibilities. To look after the family was considered as prime responsibility of women. This one sided family responsibility had become a hurdle in a path of professional and career advancement of women (Wizarat and Arya, 2007).

After independence the Constitutional guarantee of the equality to women changed the conceptual thinking concerning the education and employment of the women and helped the women to play multiple roles in the polity, economy and society.

In order to upgrade equal share of women in various educational and employment programmes the government constituted commissions and committees to frame policies for uplift ment of women, including their reservations in education and employment and financial help for their up gradation. The

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government of India has notified various developmental policies, plans and programmees for upliftment and improvement in the socio-economic status of the women. Concreted efforts were made by the government of India to provide education to all through a number of educational programmes and initiative in successive Five Year Plans.

As it is evident from the Census figure (2001) the literacy rate among women is lesser by 21.24% as compared to men. Literacy is considered as basic pillar for all round progress of individuals and overall progress of nation. To increase the literacy rate the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) was launched in 2001-02. The aim of SSA was to achieve the goal of Universalisation of Elementary Education (UEE) in general and special attention was paid on promotion of education among the girls in order to equalize educational opportunities and also to eliminate the gender disparities in India. The government of India also encouraged the educational and professional growth of girls by providing reservation to girls in 'single girl child family'. This helped in modification of social and attitudinal changes among females for their career. It also encouraged to modify the attitude of parents to think positively towards professional growth of their female child. Despite the best efforts of the government of India at planning level the government is trying hard to provide equal opportunities in education as well as in professional growth of girls but due to lack of proper implementation of these policies, the target of 100% literacy among women could not be achieved till date. As per 2001 Census the literacy rate among female was 54.61% and male literacy rate was 75.85%.

The drop-out rate at elementary stage of education is still higher in case of girls as compared to boys. The percentage share of the girls in schools and higher education is comparatively low. The work participation of females in organized sector is only 27.8% (Economic Survey 2007-2008), and out of this 27.8% major share i.e. 95.6% is being in the community development, social and personal services like teaching, social welfare, nursing etc. and only 4.4% in case of a typical occupation such as finance, insurances, estate and business. This shows a wide gender gap

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in education and employment of women. This may be because of the fact that in the Indian social set up first preference for education and employment is given to male child and the second preference is given to female child who has to work at home in order to help her mother in addition to her own education.

The women access to education and employment opportunities mainly depends on the culture of the society. Various courses and their contents should be strictly prepared keeping in view the socio-cultural environment in which the individual is living. The education should be need based and such type of vocational courses should be introduced in the educational systems which are capable of absorbing the educated lot in these specified areas that may generate the feeling of job security in them. In addition to various need based academic and professional courses the government has also introduced the schemes like "Dhan Laxmi", "Support for Training and Employment Programme (STEP)", "Setting of Rashtriya Mahila Kosh (RMK)" for upliftment of education and employment of girls in India. Inspite of the government's best efforts to improve the attitude of women and encourage them to enter into challenging jobs in the world of work by providing them better educational and employment opportunities, but the fixed target could not be achieved due to social taboos and inhibitions. Therefore, there is dire need of making efforts to orient the society in general and women in particular to adapt to positive attitude towards the education and employment of girls so that the society at large can be benefited. It is imperative to develop confidence among women in order to realize that men and women are equally good and can perform all the activities of life including professional activities in the same capacity.

Orientation is needed to change the mindset of the female to triumph over the old traditions of joining some scrupulous professions i.e. teaching and medicine and also to prepare them to opt for all other professions which are still being served by male members only. Efforts made by the government and the society (including NGOs) have resulted in positive slow change in the attitude of women to join the professions which were

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previously considered difficult for women. In order to develop confidence among women some aspects of Indian History having the contents of prominent women of India should be revealed and their performance should be highlight who have had done some marvelous jobs in their particular fields. The examples of Rani Laxmai Bhai, Mother Tresa, Mrs Sarojni Naidu, Smt. Indira Gandhi, Ms Bachinder Pal, Ms Kalpana Chawla, Lata Mangeshkar, Aishwara Rai, Dr. Kiran Mazumdar, Anju Bobby George, Mrs. Prathiba Patil present president of India and Miera Kumar the first women speaker of Lok Sahba and their achievements in the field can be narrated. All these women have broken the male bastions and intelligently and successfully carved out the space of their own. But such a percentage of visible women in India are very low. By narrating the performance of the above noted women, the female groups can be made to understand the capacities, capabilities and the abilities of women to conquer various jobs effectively and deal successfully which was generally performed by the male members. There is a need to bring attitudinal changes in the behaviour of women to have positive outlook towards their career for which the career orientation plays an important role. Career orientation depends on the overall personality development of the individual which includes various psychological, sociological and socio-economic aspects like self-esteem, achievement motivation, locus of control, parental attitude, intelligence, parental education, parental income, parental social status and parental employment. With the combined efforts of the government, society, NGOs and policy makers, career orientation programmes should be initiated in the society particularly among the women so as to change the complete scenario of women status in the Indian society and to increase the number of women who will participate in unexpected professions to the maximum extent.

1.1 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

In order to determine the socio-psychological correlates of the career orientation among females, it will be worth while to examine the concepts of career orientation, achievement

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motivation, self-esteem, locus of control, levels of intelligence, parental employment, parental education, parental social status, parental income and student perception about parental attitude toward girl's education and employment in the sketchy manner.

1.1.1 Career Orientation

The word career has two different meanings and paths, traditionally it has been a chosen profession or occupation that was pursued and one continued until retirement. Career also refers to a progression of one's working life; Goffman (1961) defined career as a social strand of a person's course through life which provides the broader context that we need for studying careers.

The term "career" is used to describe everything from vertical progression up an organizational hierarchy (Hall, 1976) to a non-work related series of diverse life experiences (Goffman, 1961). Hall (1976) stated, "A career is the individually perceived sequence of attitudes and behaviours associated with work related experiences through the span of the person's life."

Katz (1978) stated that a career, is not merely a vocation or some distinct occupation, but encompasses the individual's understanding and interpretation of work related experiences. Since a person's concept of career is influenced by present and past work experiences, the perception of one's career can change somewhat with each new job or assignment.

According to Storey (1979), career is sequence of work related activities and associated attitudes, values and aspirations over a span of ones life. Career may also be termed as Job; which is a paid position requiring a group of specific attributes and skills that enable a person to perform tasks in an organisation either part-time or full-time for a short or long duration, and occupation; that is defined as a group of similar jobs found in different industries or organisations.

Career is the sequence and variety of occupations (paid and unpaid) which one undertakes throughout a lifetime. More broadly, "career" includes life roles, leisure activities, learning and work.

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The term career orientation, being women specific, came into use during late 1950s, and became widespread in the late 1970's, most often in literature of counseling, personal and vocational psychology. It connotes intention to work more or less continuously throughout life, desire to work even when there is no financial need, expecting to derive large amount of satisfaction from work. The researchers in vocational psychology have contributed substantially to articulate the complex, interrelated external and internal factors that shape women's career development. (Farmer, 1985; Betz and Fitzgerald, 1987; Eccles, 1987; Fassinger 1990; O'Brien and Fassinger, 1993; McCraken and Weitzman, 1997; Rainey and Borders, 1997; Richie et al., 1997; and Schaefers et al., 1997; Nauta et al., 1998; O'Brien et al., 2000; Gomez et al., 2001; Hensler McGinnis, 2004).

Zaleznik et al., (1972) defined career orientation as "The capacity to select certain features of an occupation for investment according to motives, interests and competences consistently developed through an individual's personal history". In other words it is the ability to select self actualizing career path, free form the "obstructions of inner conflicts". With good career orientation one's energy is "free for use along a main line of interests supported by coherent values."

Saleh and Pasricha (1975) used the term job orientation in place of career orientation and clarified the meaning of job orientation. Job orientation refers to the process by which work behaviour is investigated, directed, sustained and stopped. It denotes interaction between the individual and his work environment. Job orientation is neither a process nor a state but is considered to be an individual tendency, which is relatively stable attribute of the individual based on his value system. Two major categories of job orientation are intrinsic job orientation and extrinsic job orientation. Intrinsically oriented individuals are more task or job content oriented; extrinsically oriented individuals are more maintenance of job context oriented. This conceptualization is different from the conceptualization of locus

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of control. The internally controlled person believes that his behaviour, whether related to job content or job context, is under his control. The externally controlled person, on the other hand, believes that luck; chance or fate has lot to do with one's behaviour.

In the words of Campbell and Pritchard (1976), career orientation is a multidimensional construct that explains decisions and behaviours, not explained by ability alone, but determined by the will to be directed, aroused, in a persistent manner in an individual's work behaviour. Work orientation is a construct that generally refers to motivation to do one's current job; it is conceptualized as a multidimensional construct internal to the individual, influenced by the situation, and reflected in the individual's decisions and behaviours. The individual characteristic dimensions are needs, interests, and personality variables potentially relevant to a person's career. These dimensions are clustered into three domains: career identity, career insight, and career resilience. The dimensions comprising these domains were derived from work on personality and individual assessments (Murray, 1938 and Bray et al., 1974). 'Career identity' reflects the direction of 'career orientation'; 'career insight' and 'career resilience' reflect the arousal, strength and persistence of career motivation.

Career orientation is the process of managing life, learning and work over the lifespan. The career orientation among women pursuing higher education is basically a career choice that is consistent with one's interest and abilities, as well as involves decision about which societal role; individual will accept or reject (Tokar et al., 1998). This is particularly true of women, who have formerly been cast into a position of having to choose between traditionally female roles (wife and mother) and non-traditional roles (career and person).

Australian Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs (AMCEETYA) (2001) defines career orientation as, "The development of knowledge, skills and attitudes through a planned program of learning experiences that will assist students to make informed decisions about their study

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and / or work options and enable effective participation in working life. Career orientation encompasses:

- learning about the world of work, its changing nature, the general expectations of employers, and the demands of the workplace
- developing self-awareness in relation to interests, abilities, competencies and values
- developing awareness and understanding of occupational information and career pathways
- developing skills in decision-making which can be applied to career choices
- acquiring the skills necessary to implement the career decisions made.

Looking into these views and definitions, there are some key issues that define career orientation in terms of:

Intending to work more or less continuously throughout one's life (Richardson, 1973; Stewart and Winter, 1974; Gustapen, 1992; Hansler-McGinnis, 2004); desire to work even when there is no financial need and there are young children at home (Eyde, 1962; Richardson, 1976; Tokar et al., 1998); expecting to desire a large amount of satisfaction from work or intending to invest a large amount of time to work relative to other life activities (Altman, 1975; Sedney and Turner, 1975; O' Brien et al., 2000); preferring or choosing to enter a traditionally male career area or receiving high scores on masculine career scales of vocational interest (Altman, 1975; Kotcher, 1976; Quimby, 2002); seeking occupational information and engaging in career planning activities (Richardson 1973); expressing a commitment and social vision that expands leadership beyond professionalism (Zoleznik, 1972; Konek et al., 1994; Pulkkinen et al., 2000); showing 'self' or 'balanced' orientation and preferring to work outside the home (Gordon, 1978); the capacity to select certain features of an occupation for investment according to motives, interests, and competences, consistently development through an individuals personal history (Zoleznik, 1972); a composite score made up of four indicators: occupational status, education, present work situation and career stability (Pulkkinen et al., 1999).

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1.1.2 Self-Esteem

Self-esteem is a concept that a person has regarding his own self which consists of any evaluation that he makes of himself or what ever feelings he has about himself. In fact, what a person thinks about himself comprises the attitudes and feelings that he has, about himself. Self-esteem refers to general feelings of self-worth or self-value.

According to Maslow (1954), self-esteem is the way one feels about oneself, including the degree of which one possess i.e. self-respect and self-acceptance. The manner in which an individual evaluates himself may indicate the level of self-esteem, or the estimation of worth the individual places on the self. Self-esteem is related to the process of becoming a self-actualizing person and included the esteem needs in his hierarchy of basic needs. He theorized that people have a "desire for a stable, firmly based, usually high evaluation of themselves, for self-respect or self-esteem and for the esteem of others". Maslow also refers to the security syndrome and pointed out possibilities of analyzing individuals in terms of high self-esteem and security and conversely low self-esteem and insecurity. He also pointed out that in the hierarchy of needs job is also one of the needs because rest all other things are dependent on career.

Shibutani (1961) noted that an individual places some kind of estimate upon himself and his profession as an object of value, and that people vary in their sense of self-esteem. This difference in self-esteem may be expressed in various ways. However, the manner in which an individual acts towards himself and his profession as an object of value indicates one's level of self-esteem. He further added that profession of individual is related to the self-esteem, because it depends upon the individual's self-esteem what type of profession he is going to perceive.

Self-esteem crystallizes through regularized and recurrent responses of others. When the individual is consistently treated in the same manner, his evaluations of himself are reinforced. Once the self-esteem emerges, it is independent of the responses of others and tends to be self-sustaining. An individual tries to maintain and enhance his sense of personal worth in his own

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eyes. He behaves in those ways, which justify the notions that he has of himself. He acts in a specific manner not only to secure gratification of varied wants, but also to justify certain beliefs about his personality and is to justify these beliefs in order to maintain self-esteem. Personality of the individual is highly affected by career and if the individual is satisfied with the career his self-esteem is automatically balanced.

Wylie (1961) noted that 'the most commonly studied class of aspects of the phenomenal self includes such attitudes as self-satisfaction, self-acceptance, self-esteem, self-favourability, congruence between self and ideal self, and discrepancies between self and ideal self. Therefore, for convenience, Wiley used self-regard to include the various terms; self-esteem was included as one of the aspects of the phenomenal self. Self-concept theory includes considerations of both the way an individual perceives himself and his attitudes concerning his worth. Thus, a self-evaluation is implied. In this self-evaluation, each person places some kind of estimate upon himself as a human being and consciously or unconsciously tries to maintain it at an adequate level. It also includes the worth which the individual has about his career. This feeling of worth is referred to as self-esteem.

Coopersmith (1967) explained self-esteem in terms of evaluative attitude towards the self i.e. the evaluation which the individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to himself; it expresses an attitude of approval or disapproval; and indicates the extent to which the individual believes himself to be capable, significant, successful and worthy particularly in the area of job.

The term 'self-esteem' has been used to refer to some hypothetical overall or global level of self-evaluation or self-regard. The common assumption may or may not be true that global self-esteem is comprised of or based upon a combination of self-evaluation referring to aspects of both the personal self-concept and the social self-concept and job of individual is one of the important aspect of personal self-concept (Wylie, 1979).

Generally, persons who believe they are moral, competent, good looking, with good job and so on will have higher self-

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esteem; than persons who do not hold such beliefs. But there is a more subtle structural relationship between self-esteem and self-concept, the more clearly defined ones self-concept, the higher one's self-esteem is (Campbell, 1990).

Burnett (1994) regards self-esteem as a component of self-concept i.e. the sense of personal pride which includes one's evaluation of oneself and a tendency and desire to see oneself as positive. He is of the opinion that positive outlook can be improved by better career options, and better career options is possible if the person is well career oriented.

While self-concept refers to what we believe about ourselves and self-esteem is related to how we feel about or evaluate ourselves. Self-concept is the nature and organization of beliefs about one's self. Self-concept is theorized to be multi-dimensional. People have separate beliefs about physical, emotional and social aspects of themselves. Self-concept is an attitudinal concept towards her / him self. It is an image a person holds about his physical self, abilities and disabilities, his present status and his worthiness.

According to Tesser (2000), self-esteem is a global evaluation reflecting our view of our accomplishments and capabilities, our values, our bodies, other's responses to us, and even on occasion, our possessions. Low or negative self-esteem is often aversive and is correlated with depression. Positive self-esteem is thought to be important to psychological adjustment. It is often affected by how well or poorly a person performs, particularly in comparison to others.

In general, self-esteem is the affective position of the self. An individual's behaviour with positive self-esteem is an expression of psychological maturity and independent thinking based on deliberate thought process. Such a person has a perception of reality based on clarity, intelligibility, understanding and leads a life with a direction of purpose. It is the essential quality of mental health and its absence will lead to mental disturbance. So, a person with self-esteem has more chance of developing a healthier personality and achieve better in all walks of life especially in career.

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Self-esteem can cut across a wide variety of things and concepts. It occurs in every facet of life. It is the force behind most success and failure, the force behind peak performance, successful achievement, living in ones dreams – living in ones world. Self-esteem is the feeling of being happy with ones character and abilities. It is manifested in a wonderful feeling of inner balance, grounded on self-acceptance and comforting self-respect towards oneself. High self-esteem is to know who we are and living in harmony with ourselves without needing to have the approval of others.

From the above definition, it is clear that career is closely associated with self-esteem. A person having highly paid job has generally high self-esteem and are well adjusted in the life.

1.1.3 Achievement Motivation

Human behaviour is hardly possible with out motivation, no act is possible with out motivation, thus for joining some job motivation is a very important factor. A pre-condition of adjusting to all good and well paid jobs is urge from within and a clearer picture of the goal outside.

The concept of achievement motivation was introduced by Murray (1938) and he termed achievement motivation as need achievement. In early research studies the need to achieve (n-Ach) was assumed to be present in any situation marked by competition with a standard of excellence. Further achievement motivation is defined as to accomplish something difficult to master, manipulate or organize physical objects, human beings or ideas rapidly and as independently as possible.

The achievement motive, a desire to perform well and attain success, clearly plays an important role in individual and societal accomplishments including career. Murray (1938) introduced the term personality into psychology as one of twenty fundamental human 'needs' or 'motives'.

McClelland et al. (1953) defined the achievement motive as involving a concern for excellence-specifically, image of positive and negative anticipations, instrumental activity, explicitly stated desire or need and goal satisfaction while a person is in work place.

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Achievement motivation was identified as an internalized tendency to strive for standard of excellence. It attempts to account for the determinants of the direction, magnitude and persistence of behaviour. It applies only when an individual knows that his performance will be evaluated (either by himself or others) in terms of some standards of excellence and consequences of his action will be either a favourable evaluation (success) or unfavourable evaluation (failure). Such performance is generally called achievement. Achievement is closely related to career. When achievement motive is aroused, it is expressed in driving energy directed towards attaining excellence, getting ahead, doing things better, faster, more efficiently and finding solution to difficult problems which require ingenuity and persistence for better job perspective.

Kelley (1955) refers it to be a factor in the effective management of the process of career performance. It is relatively a new concept in the world of motivation. The basis of achievement motivation is achievement motive i.e. a motive to achieve. Those who engage themselves in a task on account of an achievement motive are said to work under the spirit of achievement motivation.

According to Atkinson and Feather (1966), achievement motivation is conceived as a latest disposition which is manifested in overt striving only when the individual perceives performance as instrumental to a sense of personal accomplishment. In general achievement motivation is expectancy of finding satisfaction in mastery of different and challenging performances where as in the field of career on particular it stands for the pursuit of excellence. Achievement motivation as n-ach is a social form of motivation involving a competitive drive, to meet standards of excellence specifically in the area of profession.

The achievement oriented person is generally attracted to activities, which require the successful exercise skill. Among activities that pit his skill against some standard or the skill of others he is more challenged by the task of intermediate difficulty,

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50-50 risk, than easier and safer ventures or much more difficult and speculative ones. He does this because he likes the challenge and the sense of having done something well a good deal more than others do, and probably he likes other potentially gratifying activities. Whatever the level of challenge to achieve, he will strive more persistently than others when confronted with an opportunity to quit and undertake some different kind of activity instead. He extrapolates the higher "batting average" (i.e., more frequent success) to the new venture when little concrete information about his chances is available. Consequently, many professional tasks which appear very difficult to others are likely to be viewed as realistic or calculated risks by the achievement-orientated personality. In contrast, we have the individual in whom the motive to avoid failure greatly exceeds the motive to achieve. He is dominated by the threat of failure, and so resists activities in which his competence might be evaluated against a standard or the competence of others when forced into achievement oriented activities; he is mostly threatened by what the other fellow considers the greatest challenge. Constrained, but given a choice, he will defend himself by undertaking activities in which success is virtually assured or activities which offer so little real chance of success that the appearance of trying to do a very difficult thing (which society usually applauds) more than compensates for repeated and minimally embarrassing failures (Atkinson and Feather, 1966).

Achievement motivation, initiating action, arises through interaction of achievement-orientated motivating potentials of the profession in its situational context and the strength of the achievement motive on the side of the performing person.

Personal goals controlling actions result directly from the strength of this achievement motivation. The second part of the motivation process responsible for the translation of motivation into action is often called the volitional phase in the control of behaviour (Heckhausen, 1989); during this phase, goal oriented actions turn into outcomes controlled by the degree of goal

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commitment. Goal commitment affects the way persons choose to reach their goals and the strategies they pursue (Brandtstadter and Renner, 1990). Such strategies are to pursue a goal persistently even in cases of hindrance or to adopt flexibility to changing aspects of the situation. The translation process works better when more specific and concrete goals are set; the higher the goal commitment, the more effective the chosen strategies of goal pursuit (Vroom, 1964; Locke and Latham, 1990 and Kleinbeck, 2001). The theory of achievement motivation describes performance as multi-dimensional and as influenced by many different factors (Schneider and Schmalt, 2000).

Schmalt and Sokolowsky (2000) discussed the quality of the different techniques to measure the achievement motive and conclude that all available instruments work reliably. Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) and Grid Technique have comparable and widely diversified validity ranges that are related to respondent and operant behaviour. Questionnaires used to diagnose motives seem to be specified to predict respondent behaviour and conscious experiences (Sprangler, 1992).

People who score high in TAT achievement motivation prefer and work hardest under conditions of moderate and realistic (versus extremely high or low) risk especially when they have some control over results. They are restless and innovative. They seek and use new information, advise from experts (versus friends), and feed back about their previous performance (McClelland, 1985; Smith, 1992 and Winter, 1996). They show facilitating attribution pattern in the domain of achievement tasks, such that they explain their success as due to ability or effort but view their failures as the result of external circumstances or luck (Weiner, 1985).

To conclude, a high achievement motivation in people guarantees success in all fields of life specifically in job and wealth in human societies. To produce adequate conditions for the development of a high achievement motivation, it is necessary to understand how achievement motivation is formed and how it can be translated into successful action (Kleinbeck, 2003).

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1.1.4 Locus of Control

Locus of control refers to a person's belief about what causes the good or bad results in his or her life, either in general or in a specific area such as health, profession or academics. It can either be internal (meaning the person believes that they control themselves and their life) or external (meaning they believe that their environment, some higher power, or other people control their decisions and their life).

Most concepts concerning the propensity to view the self as being in control have included an internal Locus of Control, while other psychological constructs have denoted an external Locus of Control (Rotter, 1966). This control orientation is widely viewed as a core feature of personality consisting of a range of ramifications for life's satisfaction and well-being (Mortimer, Finch & Kumba, 1973; Heath, 1976; Pearline & Schooler, 1978; Mortimer & Lorence, 1981). However, there seems to be considerable consensus that control orientation is not a fixed trait, but rather a response to successes and failures throughout life (Bandura, 1977).

Rotter (1975, 1989) has discussed problems and misconceptions. He cautioned that internality and externality represent two ends of a continuum. Internals tend to attribute outcomes of events to their own control. Externals attribute outcomes of events to external circumstances. Implications for differences between internals and externals in terms of their achievement motivation, suggesting that internal locus is linked with higher levels of n-ach and thus is connected with high career orientation. Due to their locating control outside themselves, externals tend to feel they have less control over their fate. People with an external locus of control tend to be more stressed and prone to clinical depression (Benassi, Sweeney & Dufour, 1988; cited in Maltby, Day & Macaskill, 2007). Internals were believed by Rotter (1966) to exhibit two essential characteristics – high achievement motivation and low outer-directedness. Locus of control is a one-dimensional construct.

Weiner (1970), suggested that, more-or-less orthogonal to the internality-externality dimension, we should also consider

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differences between those who attribute to stable causes, and those who attribute to unstable causes. This meant that attributions could be the ability (an internal stable cause), effort (an internal unstable cause), task difficulty (an external stable cause) or luck (an external, unstable cause). Although he has been challenged as to whether people do see luck, as an external cause, whether ability is always perceived as stable and whether effort is always seen as changing. Weiner (1980) used different terms for these four causes – such as "objective task characteristics" in place of task difficulty and "chance" in place of luck. It has also been notable how psychologists since Weiner have distinguished between stable effort and unstable effort – knowing that, in some circumstances, effort could be seen as a stable cause, especially given the presence of certain words such as "industrious" in the English language. Studies suggest that locus of control depend on age, culture and socio-economic status.

Locus of control has been a concept which has certainly generated much research in psychology, in a variety of areas. Usefulness of the construct can be seen in its applicability to fields such as educational psychology, health psychology or clinical psychology. Careful distinctions should also be made between locus of control (a concept linked with expectancies about the future) and attribution style (a concept linked with explanations for past outcomes), or between locus of control and concepts such as self-efficacy.

Locus of control is also related with career orientation. Person's career orientation is highly affected by locus of control. Locus of control refers to a person's belief about what causes the good or bad results in his or her life and career orientation is one of the important aspect associated with individual.

1.1.5 Intelligence

Intelligence is the ability to think and reason on given levels of complexity. This ability ranges from idiot, imbecile, and moron levels, where only simple problems can be solved, to genius levels where problems of much greater complexity can be handled successfully. It is very helpful in making certain valuable decisions even regarding selection of career in one's

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life. People who are intelligent possess effective problem-solving techniques in their profession and thus are able to solve problems at higher levels of complexity than people with low level of intelligence.

Thorndike (1914) stated that intelligence is the ability of the individual to make "good responses from the standpoint of truth or fact"; others emphasized the ability to adjust adequately to new situations which include adjustment to different professions.

In the view of Stern (1914) intelligence is a general capacity of an individual, consciously to adjust his thinking to new environment. It is general mental adaptability to new problems and conditions of life. Generally when a person goes to school or college or joins new profession new environment arises and a person who is intelligent adjusts well to this new environment. Buckingham says intelligence is the professional learning ability i.e. how quickly an individual learns in the new environment.

Terman and Merrill (1937) asserted "An individual is intelligent in proportion to his ability to carry on abstract thinking," and thus implicitly differentiate the capacity to deal with concrete or mechanical situations and the ability to handle the symbols, to see relationships, and to solve problems. Those persons whose level of intelligence is high they are able to solve the problems related to job very effectively. Thorndike too, felt that it was necessary to differentiate between different kinds of intelligence, such as abstract, mechanical, or social. From these considerations of intelligence, and many other treatment as well, one might conclude that intelligence is reflected by individual's success in adapting himself to the varied demands of the modern life. Thus intelligence affects career as well as career orientation. Those who are intelligent are highly career oriented than those who are less intelligent.

According to Wechsler (1939) intelligence is the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with his professional environment.

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Stoddard (1943) defined intelligence as the ability to undertake activities that are characterized by difficulty, complexity, abstraction, economy, adaptiveness to the goal, career, social value and the emergence of originals, and to maintain such activities under conditions that demand a concentration of energy and a resistance to emotional forces.

In the view of Burt (1948) intelligence is an innate general cognitive ability. Hebb and Cattell have distinguished intelligence into two kinds, intelligence A and intelligence B or fluid and crystallized intelligence. Fluid intelligence or A is thought of genetic potentiality, or the basic innate qualities of the individuals' nervous system and the crystallized intelligence B is mainly the result of experience, learning and environmental factors. He is of the opinion that it is the intelligence B which is mainly related with the job or profession of the individual, hence according to Hebb and Cattle intelligence has to play an important role in choice of career of an individual.

Worth and Marquis (1948) defined intelligence as intellect put to use. It is the use of intellectual abilities for handling a situation or accomplishing any task or job. It also includes the abilities to think in terms of the career or job. Piaget (1952) defined intelligence as the ability to adapt to one's surroundings which arise before the individual after joining a new job.

Vernon (1950) defined intelligence as the capacity to adapt relatively in new situations of life. Wagon (1977) reported that intelligence is the capacity to adopt and adjust to relatively new and changing conditions including career. Career orientation is also related to and affected by the level of intelligence. Career orientation makes the individual aware about the merits and demerits of the career which the person is going to opt.

From the above definitions it can be concluded that intelligence is related to all the aspects of personality of the individual. Intelligence may be considered as the pivot in one's choice of career and effective execution of the profession. High intelligent persons will perform better than the low intelligent persons in the profession or career. High intelligent individuals

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will be well adjusted in all types of professions where as low intelligent persons will be maladjusted in all types of professions.

1.1.6 Role of Family in Career Orientation

Children need to feel safe, secure, loved and also to be a part of the family. This foundation provides roots from which the child can develop wings to explore the world. As children get older, their attempts become bolder, and they gain a sense of who they are in relationship to their environment. It is a established fact that most of those who achieve success in their life come from homes where parental attitudes towards them were favourable and where a balaced relationship exists between parents and children. Such families produce happy and friendly children who are constructive and affectionate members of the group. By contrast, those who are unsuccessful in life usually come from homes where the parent-child relationship is unfavourable (Shah and Sharma, 1984).

Farrell & Pollard (1987) found that the positive influence of aspirations or expectations was not limited to parents; that is, expectations by other significant people were positively related to student's aspirations. They presented three categories to describe types of parental involvement in adolescents' career development: positive involvement, non-involvement, and negative involvement. The high level anxiety adolescents have about their career decisions or exploration, quite understandably, is in response to parent's negative involvement. The burden of following a parent's narrowly defined expectations of success has resulted in mental health problems, estranged parent-child relationships, or in socially delinquent behaviours.

Ridder (1990), however, pointed out that lower levels of parental education can retard adolescents' career development. It is argued; being born to parents with limited education and income reduces the likelihood of going to college or achieving a professional occupation goal and essentially predetermined the child's likely vocational choice.

. Smith (1991) claimed that the students' agreement with parental expectations was positively correlated with his or her aspirations. Shepard (1992) found that positive change in parental

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aspirations over a two-year period had a greater effect on the student's aspirations than those parental expectations that did not change.

Verma and Sangita (1991) found better home environment to be facilitative in enhancing self-esteem and internality among adolescents. A number of family background factors have been found to be associated with career development such as parents' socio-economic status, their educational level, and biogenetic factors such as physical size, gender, ability and temperament. (Penick and Jepsen, 1992); in a study of the influences on adolescents' vocational development reported by Mortimer (1992) parental education was the variable that had the most effect on educational plans and occupational aspirations. Montgomery (1992) noted that females talented in mathematics viewed their career choices also as reflective of interests that stemmed from early family influence and educational opportunities.

Family income is another aspect of family background that influences the career development of youth, especially for girls (Mortimer, 1992). One reason for this may be that families with limited economic resources prefer to spend money on the education of male child in comparison to female one, thus giving less hope and encouragement for further education to daughters in their family. Also, some parents-especially working class or lower-income parents – may hold values that place girls in the homemaker role and give less emphasis on occupational preparation. Given this disposition, it is understandable that the self-efficacy of girls with respect to career opportunities is linked to economic support they can expect to receive from their parents.

Penick and Jepsen (1992) noted that adolescents from enmeshed families may have difficulty mastering career development tasks because they are unable to distinguish their own from parental goals and expectations. Disengagement of family and adolescents has similarly negative effects. Adolescents from disengaged families may lack familial support and interaction, resulting in limits on self-knowledge and task orientation that interferes with mastery of career development tasks.

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Wilson & Wilson (1992) reported that maternal expectations for the students might have the greatest impact on the students' aspirations.

Family influence is an important force in preparing youth for their roles as workers. Young people form many of their attitudes about work and careers as a result of interactions with the family. Family background provides the basis from which their career plans and decision making evolve. However, within each family, the level of involvement may vary, offering both positive and negative influences (Lankard, 1995).

Parents' expectations for their children have received much attention in the literature. In general, most of the findings have suggested that parental expectations are positively correlated with the students' aspirations (Man, 1995).

Arce (1996) conducted a study of college students from two different cultural and social backgrounds who were undecided about careers as determined by indecision, social support, and self-esteem scores. The results of this study were found that students from different cultural and social backgrounds had different career orientation. The sociological research on career development focused on cultural and social aspects affecting career choice (e.g., class, ethnicity, and culture). Pure sociological perspectives took into account other factors, such as labour demands and technical advances. These studies, which went far beyond examining an individual's control, suggested that the latter factors have a direct impact on industrial career choice (Brown & Brooks, 1990). In contemporary sociological theory, greater attention has been given to status attainment research (Hotchkiss & Borow, 1984, 1990). The status attainment theory, as it relates to career decisions and career development, suggests that the social status of student's parents affects the level of schooling he or she will achieve, which in turn affects his or her level of occupational attainment. In other words, within the status attainment model there are obstacles that present certain kinds of indecisiveness (education, occupation, and income) that ultimately affect career decision-making and career development,

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as well as the career outcome. Based on the status attainment model, career indecisiveness would tend to suggest that students lack significant interpersonal relationships with influential people throughout their adolescent lives. In this particular model, race and gender no longer seem to be strong determinants of ones career goals. Instead, other characteristics, such as societal circumstances and demographics, appear to be significant determinants affecting career decision-making and career goals among college students.

Thus a young person's social adjustment is not a thing apart, but is closely linked with his adjustment to his home and school relationships. It usually follows that an adolescent who experiences a normal and well integrated home and school life carries over into all his other associations a similar wholesomeness of attitude and control of behaviour (Verma and Sangita, 1991; Field et. al., 1995; Kokko and Pulkkinen, 2000 and Lai and Mcbride-Chang, 2001).

Kniveton (2004) in his study "The Influences and Motivations on which Students base their Choice of Career" found that the greatest influence on their choice of career was their parents, followed by their teachers. There was evidence of gender differences, with same-sex parental influence. Although seeking further education was the most popular next step for most respondents, marriage was more important to females than to males. Overall motivation to work was found primarily to involve money and liking the job. Very low on the list were long-term goals, such as personal development, career advancement or pensions. Most noticeably, the students considered that status derived from possessions rather than employment.

Malhotra (2005) revealed that the present social structure reflects the changes that have come through changing frame of time; a major breakthrough is the growing education and economic independence among women. The economic pressures of inflation, influence of the women's movement and the psychological need to develop one's 'self identity' are encouraging

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the women to take a more active role outside the home to pursue full time careers. This shift from private to public domain gives an impression that women have finally liberated from shackles of patriarchal norms. However, a closer look at the scenario makes us realize that working women face new set of problems involving both family and profession.

Williamson (2006) has observed that college students possessing strong positive feeling towards recollection of early childhood family influences also possessed greater confidence in themselves and in others as well as greater perceptions of academic self-efficacy.

Parents are an essential part of their child's environment. In order to foster caring, responsible and committed children, adults need to have a positive view of themselves (self-concept) and serve as role models for their children. On the other hand, in order to succeed, children need to gain confidence in their attitudes and gain a sense that they can do things on their own. The precious time between birth and maturity gives parents many opportunities to balance roots and wings. If a family is to remain "strong", members need adequate time to nurture and support a healthy self-concept.

Danziger and Eden (2007), in their study, "Gender-Related Differences in the Occupational Aspirations and Career-Style Preferences of Accounting Students: A Cross-Sectional Comparison between Academic School Years" found that differences between the sexes in occupational aspirations and career style preferences would evolve and increase with years of study and especially as students approached the end of the academic track. In other words, it was expected that an interaction between gender and year of study would affect students' occupational aspirations and career-style preferences. During their later academic years, females reduced their occupational aspirations and revealed a stronger preference for a convenient balance between work and other facets of life. The study demonstrated the decrease in female students' occupational aspirations during the educational period, and that encouraging

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young women to obtain male-type professional education might be insufficient in order to eliminate inequality between the sexes.

Jones (2008) found that women have increasingly become more involved in the workforce following World War II. Paid employment of women has shifted from primarily traditional female-oriented jobs to more non-traditional and previously male-oriented careers. Women's participation in the workforce has lead to the study of career aspirations of women. Career aspirations are influenced by many factors such as gender, socio-economic status, race, parent's occupation, education level, and parental expectations.

From the above discussion we can conclude that career is one of the important aspects of the personality of the individual and career orientation plays an important role in selection and continuation of career. Career orientation can be defined as intending to work more or less continuously throughout one's life, desire to work even when there is no financial need and there are young children at home, expecting to desire a large amount of satisfaction from work or intending to invest a large amount of time to work relative to other life activities, preferring or choosing to enter a traditionally male career area or receiving high scores on masculine career scales of vocational interest, seeking occupational information and engaging in career planning activities, expressing a commitment and social vision that expands leadership beyond professionalism, showing 'self' or 'balanced' orientation and preferring to work outside the home, the capacity to select certain features of an occupation for investment according to motives, interests, and competences, consistently development through an individuals personal history, a composite score made up of four indicators: occupational status, education, present work situation and career stability. Career orientation depends on various factors and according to *Patton and McMahon (2001) C*areer orientation is not simply matching a person to an occupation. There are many influences that impact on a person's career orientation which are detailed below:

i) Individual factors like self-concept, health, values, gender, interests, skills age, beliefs, aptitudes, ethnicity,

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disability, sexual orientation, physical attributes, world of work and knowledge.

ii) Social factors like family, peers, community, groups, media, and socio-economic status.

iii) Environmental factors like political decisions, educational institutions, geographical location, employment, market, workplace, globalisation and historical trends.

iv) Other factors these include time perspective, chance, change over time, recursiveness, interdependence of influences.

In addition to the factors given by *Patton and McMahon* there are various other factors on which career orientation depends and few important factors which have been included in the study are like self-esteem, locus of control, intelligence, achievement motivation, parental attitude, parental income, parental social status, parental education and parental employment.

1.2 THE PROBLEM

Human resource development – an investment towards the improvement of quality of human life – plays a key role in the socio-economic development of the country and education is the key element in this vital area. In the present context, India's major socio-economic development programmes, with emphasis on equality, justice, demand to take account of one of the major sections of the society, namely, the women's development through the process of education to facilitate them to meaningfully participate in developmental programmess and hence to explore their socio-psychological dynamics associated with future plans i.e. career development to provide necessary inputs in the educational and vocational programmees for women, particularly those who are pursuing higher education.

The year 2001 was celebrated as the women's empowerment year and the national policy for empowerment of women was approved. The policy prescribes strategies and action points to bridge the gender gap in social, economic and political processes. This is in continuity with the major strategy adopted during the ninth plan (1997-2002) to introduce a women's

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component plan (WCP) under which not less than 30% of the funds / benefits should be specifically earmarked for women's programmmes in tenth and eleventh plans with enhanced vigour has focussed on education, employment and health status of women, especially in the wake of declining sex ratio. The attempts are not exhaustive but only a beginning to a new realization to treat women an equal partner in the real sense. This partnership is not to be seen as leader and follower but of moving together so that any hurdle can be fought with more vigour.

All these socio-political and economic interventionstic programmes aim at 'empowerment' of women, which reflects a certain level of critical consciousness about external realities and an awareness about their thought construction and belief system that affect their well being in terms of gender and social justice as well as the determination to use their physical, intellectual, emotional and spiritual resources to protect their lives and sustain values that guarantee gender equity at personal, social, economic, political and institutional level (Shaiker and Rao, 2003).

In order to promote the participation of educated women in productive activities in the wider context of national development, there is urgent need of sustained research efforts for understanding of the complex human personality vis-a-vis family background determining their career development. The study of such factors will provide empirical database to design strategies for women development, through the process of education.

The concept of career development among women pursuing higher education is gaining much needed attention of researchers all over the world to work out modeling based on socio-psychological variables. Vocational decision-making is not based only on making a career choice that is consistent with one's interest and abilities, but also involves decisions of which societal role; individual will accept or reject (Tokar et al., 1998). This is particularly true of women, who have formerly been cast into a position of having to choose between traditionally female roles (Wife and Mother) and non-traditional roles (Career-Person).

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Various studies have been conducted on the career orientation and work culture among women. Konek et al. (1994) demonstrated that working women have internalized concept of individualism and self-reliance as well as trust in personal worth than professional or social support that characterize success in career.

The identity of social and psychological obstacles to women's achievement in our society, in terms of career planning and simultaneous opting for marriage and family remains an important issue for researchers to explore the emerging concept of career orientation or career salience among female students, especially as a result of socialization and process of education. Various studies at the national and international level have been conducted to study the career orientation of females in relation to different psychological and socio-economic variables.

Baruch (1972) in his study "Maternal Influence upon College Women's Attitude towards Women and Work" concluded that mothers working outside the home tend to have salutary effect on girls. Her study revealed that daughters from the families in which the mothers worked tended to admire their mothers more, had a more positive conception of the female role and were more likely to be independent.

Drust (1977) found in his study of "Determining Common Characteristics, Attitudes and Perceptions which Existed among Women in Top Level Educational Administrative Positions" that women held only 2.21 percent of the top level school administrative positions and felt they were discriminated in hiring and promotion, but marriage and children were considered to be a help and not a hindrance to their career.

Gordon, (1978) in the study "Self-Esteem, Sex-Role Orientation and Career Orientation of Women in Two Stages of Development, Child Bearing Stage and Child Bearing Stage and Beyond" found that career oriented women in general tended to manifest high self-esteem more often than non-career oriented women in general, irrespective of sex-role orientation.

Spector (1982) in the study "Behavior in Organizations as a Function of Employee's Locus of Control" found that

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individuals with an internal locus of control were best suited for professional or managerial jobs, where they were more likely to perform better and be more satisfied.

Arnold, (1993) in the study "Undergraduate Aspirations the Career Outcomes of Academically Talented Women: A Discriminant Analysis" found there is a burden projected upon women which causes them to remain open to the prospectus of marriage and raising children before making career choices.

Luzzo (1993) in his study "Predicting the Career Maturity of Undergraduates: A Comparison of Personal Educational and Psychological Factors" failed to confirm a relationship to age differences, between career decision making, self-efficacy and student status, in relation to age differences, which suggested that traditional and non-traditional (i.e., older than 25 years) students generally have the same level of confidence in their ability to perform variety of career decision-making behaviours.

Savage and Fouad (1994) in "Traditionally of College Major and Attitudes towards Work-Family Balance, Vocational Correlates" found that college women enrolled in traditionally female majors had lower career aspiration and career commitment levels than their counterparts in gender-neutral majors; they also indicated plans to combine work and family more often than women in gender neutral majors. These findings suggest that many women who have both the access to education and the ability to succeed may not fulfill their intellectual or economic potential

Vermeulen (1995) in the study "The Context of Career Decisions: Women Reared in a Rural Community" identified the factor affecting the career decisions of graduate women students and found that, they were affected by their families and their rural community (social context), changes overtime in societal attitudes (historical context) and differences in the stages of their lives (developmental context).

O'Brien (1996) in the study "The Influence of Psychological Separation and Parental Attachment on Career Development of Adolescent Women" explored the contribution of psychological separation and parental attachment to constructs

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related to the career development of adolescent women. Results of the study suggested that high school women who experienced similar attitudes to mother, reliance on mother for assistance in daily functioning, conflicting feelings towards mother and freedom from the need for approval closeness and emotional support from father evidenced very strong career self-efficacy beliefs and moderate levels of both career orientation and realism. Thus this indicated that young women who experienced attachment to their mothers and were moving towards the independence were interested in pursuing a career, selected careers which were mostly consistent with their ability and felt highly efficacious with regard to choosing a career, continued attention to the career development of young women over time is critical in order to further differentiate among the individual, relational and societal variables that promote healthy career development as well as occupational success and satisfaction for women.

Muhonen (1999) investigated the effects of individual and situational factors on the career development of women. The sample consisted of 399 women managers from both the private and public sectors, and also women from male – and female – dominated careers. He found that both individual factors (work, locus of control, educational level) and structural factors (male hierarchy and support from spouse) were related to the female's managerial advancement. Additionally, the results revealed that both situation – and individual – related factors could also provide some hindrance for female career development.

Pulkkinen et al., (2002) in the study showed that high career orientation was explained by personality characteristics indicating high self-control of emotions (constructiveness, stability, and compliance), whereas low career orientation was explained by characteristics indicating low self-control of emotions (anxiety, liability, and aggressiveness). Social activity was related to female but not to male career orientation and, correspondingly, passivity was a risk factor for female but not for male career orientation. Gender differences were accentuated in the matter of career stability: both stable and unstable careers

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were more strongly related to personality characteristics in women than in men.

Caldera et al. (2003) showed that Mexican American women's commitment to a career choice was influenced more by their instrumentality and less by their expressiveness or their parents; Non-Hispanic White college women's commitment was influenced by familial factors rather than by intrapersonal factors in the study. These findings underscore the need to investigate intrapersonal, contextual factors and culture in women's processes of committing to a career choice.

The results of the Keller (2004) revealed that parental behaviours are significantly related to the career development of young adolescents.

Damodara (1985) concluded in rural areas even today a woman's economic status is not determined by the wages she earn but by her husband and her family status. Marriage is the main career for women in rural areas; all her activities revolve around her family.

Kumari, and Sethi, (1990) in their study "Self-Esteem, Career and Family Values of College Women" studied 100 college girls who were classified as high and low on self-esteem on the basis of median split of their combined scores on a self-acceptance test. The career and family values scale was administrated to these groups to determine their differential level of career and family values. The analysis and data reviewed that college girls with high self-esteem had higher career values and lower family values.

Dean (1992) found that women still have major responsibility for child care and house work regardless of their employment status. Furthermore, statistically significant independent relationships were found between workloads in the family and symptoms of illness among women.

Middleton and Loughead (1993) suggested that adolescents' career aspirations be examined from an interactionist perspective rather than a unilateral process of influence, focusing on the context and situations in which adolescents' career development occurs

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Bharat (1995) reported that career women still perceive their domestic role more important than the economic provider role. Kumari (1996) in her study "Fear of Success of Sex-Role Attitudes as Correlates of Career Salience among College Women" reported that college women with non-traditional sex-role attitude do not differ in their career salience as compared to those with traditional sex-role attitude and fear of success does not affect in any way to determine career salience among college women.

Pillai and Sen (1998) investigated the life of working women with regard to their dual role as professionals and family care takers. Results of their study indicated that as low as 7% of working women are able to harmonize their dual roles.

Purang and Sharma (2000) in their study "Relationship of Family Background with Value System of Students" indicated that highly educated parents are highly demanding and encourage their children to aspire for more challenging goals in life.

Dennis and Susannah (2001) found that women in rural areas tend to marry and are less likely to attend college than urban women. The decision to marry early and not attend college correlates with parent's expectations and socio-economic status.

Banerjee (2003) in the study "Gender and Nationalism: The Masculinization of Hinduism and Female Political Participation in India" found that individual's socio-demographics, including education and income, socio-cultural norms and caste are associated with women's opportunities for political participation.

Sandra and Jan (2004) conducted two factor analytic study in order to determine the dimensionality of women's career orientation defined by various measures. A principal axis analysis produced two oblique factors which were tentatively named 'career centredness' and 'career commitment' respectively. While career centredness refers to life style in which one's career is regarded as more important, time consuming, and satisfying than other aspects of life, particularly family, career commitment refers to life style involving continued employment throughout life stages regardless of financial need of completing obligations.

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Begum (2004) in her study "Familial and Educational Background of College going Mulsim Girls and Socio-Cultural Modernization" through her findings concluded that the number of earning member's in the family, mothers education and working status influences socio-cultural modernization of college going Muslim girls.

Kaur (2006) in the study, "A Study of Career and Family Values among Female College Students in Relation to Parental Attitude," concluded that the female college students with educated mothers have significantly higher level of family values than those with literate or illiterate mothers. However, maternal educational status does not affect career values. Also female students with non-working mothers have high career orientation than those with working mothers. However, the working status of the mother does not affect the family values.

Anand and Bhanton (2007) revealed that socio-personal and economic factors are directly related to social maturity of adolescent girls of both rural and urban areas but major socio-personal and economic parameters like mother's education, father's occupation as well as upper caste in rural area, father's and mother's occupation plays an important role towards development of social maturity of adolescent girls.

Kaur (2007) in her study, "The Study of Career and Family Values among Female College Females in Relation to Self-Esteem" established that the parental attitude towards girls' education and employment has a favourable effect on the family values of female college students. The parental attitude towards girls' education and employment has no impact on career and family values of female Arts and Science students.

Poonam (2007) in her study on "Career Choices of Secondary School Students in Relation to Achievement" found that family income plays a vital role in career choice process of secondary school students. She added that boys have greater career choice in the field of science and technology as compared to girls.

Nehvi and Lidhoo (1994) in their study "Educated Muslim Women in Kashmir Their Attitude towards Traditional

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versus Modernization" found that urban educated Muslim women to be more progressive and desirous of major change in the traditional mode of life. Also educated Muslim women from urban background and with high socio-economic status are far more advanced and move towards the acceptance of modern values as compared to educated Muslim women from urban background with low socio-economic status.

Studies on the maternal employment and mothers attitude towards work and level of job satisfaction have revealed a positive effect on the development of career orientation among college and university going women students thereby suggesting that female adolescents' development takes place in the perspective of social learning theories and to be 'career oriented' does not necessarily mean defeminization or adopting masculine personality. It is evident from the research studies conducted so far that career orientation among female students and career commitment among workingwomen engaged in a typical occupation has been studied in relation to psychological and social-demographic variables. But no such study has been carried out in the state of Jammu and Kashmir especially in Jammu province. However, important personality variables such as self-esteem, achievement motivation, and locus of control, parental attitude and intelligence in combination with socio-economic variables like parental education, parental income, parental social status and parental employment have not been explored in an exhaustive manner. Thus women's career orientation needs intensive study to reveal the dynamics of psychological and socio-economic variables among female students undergoing studies in under graduate and post graduate classes at higher education level, therefore, the investigator selected the problem stated as under

CAREER ORIENTATION AMONG FEMALE COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY STUDENTS IN RELATION TO PSYCHOLOGICAL AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC VARIABLES

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1.3 SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY

Assessment of career achievement is necessarily a functional component of educational attainment, especially in the female students. Since career development, taking cues from the development tasks, inculcates certain values in the female students to look at 'career' and 'home' in a complex manner, as a result of socialization process and one's own reactions and self-evaluation in the changing conditions. The scope of the present study extends in determining the correlates of career orientation in the psychological and socio-economic domain in development perspective. Also the system of marriage and traditional notions about women affect their entrance into higher education, but that education itself creates unintended consequences – young women desiring to extend this period of 'relative freedom' from responsibility through further education and taking up a job (Blumberg and Dwaraki, 1980). Further the educated women, while working, begin to question the division of labour in household and physical impossibility of performing all duties well, thereby focusing on the problem of combining work with home roles. Hence, the present study will enable the educators and policy makers to work out career counseling and career planning for the female students. This study will provide a database to identify those uncertainties faced by the female students in the psychological and socio-economic context to combine the career-home making role after completing education. Since, traditional India had seen a women only as a member of the family or a group – as daughters, wives and mothers, not as an individual with an identity or right of her own, (ICSSR Report, 1974), it is only the process of working out the psychological correlates of the career orientation among female students pursuing higher education that planning for their employment in consonance with family be made and they may be helped to realize their goals in order to create an egalitarian society aiming at gender equality of opportunity in work participation and in all walks of life.

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1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1. To study the career orientation among female college and university students of urban areas of Jammu region in relation to the following psychological variables:-
   (a) Self-Esteem
   (b) Achievement Motivation
   (c) Locus of Control
   (d) Parental attitude towards education and employment of girls
   (e) Levels of Intelligence
2. To study career orientation among female college and university students of urban areas of Jammu region in relation to following socio-economic variables:-
   (a) Parental Education
   (b) Parental Employment
   (c) Parental Income
   (d) Parental Social Status
3. To study the career orientation among female college and university students of rural areas of Jammu region in relation to following psychological variables:-
   (a) Self-Esteem
   (b) Achievement Motivation
   (c) Locus of Control
   (d) Parental attitude towards education and employment of girls
   (e) Levels of Intelligence
4. To study career orientation among female college and university students of rural areas of Jammu region in relation to following socio-economic variables:-
   (a) Parental Education
   (b) Parental Employment
   (c) Parental Income
   (d) Parental Social Status
5. To compare career orientation among female college and university students of urban and rural areas of Jammu region in relation to following psychological variables:-

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(a) Self-Esteem
(b) Achievement Motivation
(c) Locus of Control
(d) Parental attitude towards education and employment of girls
(e) Levels of Intelligence

6. To compare the career orientation among female college and university students of urban and rural areas of Jammu region in relation to following socio-economic variables:-
   (a) Parental Education
   (b) Parental Employment
   (c) Parental Income
   (d) Parental Social Status
7. To study the interactive effect of psychological variables of self-esteem, achievement motivation, locus of control, parental attitude and intelligence on career orientation of female students.
8. To study the interactive effect of socio-economic variables of parental education, parental employment, parental income and parental social status on career orientation of female students.
9. To study the interactive effect of psychological variables (self-esteem, achievement motivation, locus of control, parental attitude and intelligence) and socio-economic variables (parental education, parental employment, parental income and parental social status) on career orientation of female students.

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CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The concept of career development among women pursuing higher education is gaining much needed attention of researchers all over the world to work out modeling based on socio-psychological variables. Vocational decision-making is not based only on making a career choice that is consistent with one's interest and abilities, but also involves decisions of which societal role; individual will accept or reject (Tokar et al., 1998). This is particularly true of women, who have formerly been cast into a position of having to choose between traditionally female roles (Wife and Mother) and non-traditional roles (Career-Person). Konek et al. (1994) demonstrated that working women have internalized concept of individualism and self-reliance as well as trust in personal worth than professional or social support that characterize success in career. The concept of career orientation among women, especially in youth have been viewed and defined in a variety of ways by the researchers in women studies (Fitzerald et al., 1980; Gustafson, 1992; Cook, 1993; Pulkkinen, 1992; Caldera et al., 2003) still looking into these views and definitions, there are some key issues that define career orientation in terms of ;

(1) Intending to work more or less continuously through out one's life.

(2) Desiring to work even when there is no financial need and there are children at home.

(3) Expecting to derive a large amount of satisfaction from work or intending to invest a large amount of time to work relative to other life activities.

(4) Preferring or choosing to enter a traditionally male career area or receiving high scores on masculine career scales of vocational interest.

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(5) Seeking occupational information and engaging in career planning activities, while pursuing higher education, may be academic or professional.

The active role of women folk in society is evident from the fact that the changing social and economic conditions have compelled the women to work as a productive member in organized or unorganized sector outside the home. The participation in the economically productive work particularly outside the four walls of the house has made them more self dependent, assertive and playing an active role in decision making, both at home and at work place. Education has brought them from the subordinate and subjugated position to an equal level of men. Still they are under represented in the productive work force because of the conflicting demands of career versus family responsibilities, the lack of mentorship relationships at work place and lack of appropriate female role models.

The work participation of women in public sector and private sector stood 28.59 and 20.90 lakhs as compared to male share of 162.79 and 65.02 lakhs as on 31.3.2008(Ministry of Labour, GOI; quoted in Economic Survey 2007-2008). The educational access to women folk is still a problematic area. As per 2001 census the female literacy stood at 54.16% as compared to 75.85% among males. No doubt there is increase in female literacy from 8.86% to 54.16% over the period 1951-2001 as compared to male literacy showing an increase from 27.16% to 75.85% (the overall improvement in the literacy status being 65.38% from 18.33%), the gap in male-female literacy rate, too has increased from 18.30% to 21.70% (Economic Survey 2007-2008). The girls' share in primary, upper primary and secondary stages of education stands to be 49.8, 17.5 and 10.7 million as compared to respective figures of boys being 64.0, 25.3 and 16.9 million (Selected Educational Statistics, Ministry of HRD, GOI, 2002). The faculty wise enrolment of women in higher education too presents a complex picture. The male-female ratio of the student enrolment in general higher education showed an improvement from 5.19:1 in 1957 to 1.69:1 in 1996, where as in

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case of professional education it showed an improvement from 9.98:1 to 3.12:1 over the same period (Powar, 1997). In this context, while analyzing the enrolment trends in higher education, (Singh, 2001) has reported that: "The traditionally low paying areas (Arts & Education) have higher female enrolment. The pure sciences and medicine show lower enrolment and still much lower in engineering and technology of women than men". The improvements in women status, though to some extent are attributable to concerted governmental efforts in their education and employment. This was truer in previous two decades of national planning.

During the seventh five year plan, (1985-1990) a National Perspective Plan for Women was formulated. The National Commission on Self-employed women's and Women in Informal Sector submitted a comprehensive report, "Sharamshakti" analyzing the problems affecting a large number of women in the informal sector and the steps needed to give them a better deal. Soon, thereafter a number of programmes in different sectors were launched to provide better education, health and employment opportunities to women, besides taking care of socio-cultural and personal constraints involved in women's participation in production related economic activities. In recognition of the importance of education of girls and women in accelerating socio-economic development, the Government has taken measures from time to time in this direction. The National Policy on Education (1986) too envisaged that the targets and implementation strategy will be

(i) To gear the entire education system to plan a positive interventionist role in the empowerment of women.

(ii) To promote women studies as a part of various courses and encouragement to educational institutions to take up active programme to further women's development.

(iii) To widen the access of women in programmes of vocational, technical and professional education and to create dynamic managerial structure to cope up with targets envisaged.

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An autonomous National Commission for Women was set up in year 1990 to gather information on education, employment, health, social welfare and political participation, evaluate existing policies, programmes and laws, having a bearing on the status of the women, and suggest measures for incorporation in policy formulation and implementation through various development and welfare programmes.

Human Resource Development – an improvement towards the improvement of quality of human life – plays a key role in the socio-economic development of the country and education is the key element in this vital area. In the present context, India's major socio-economic development programmes with emphasis on equity and justice, demand to take account of one of the major sections of the society, namely the women's development through the process of education to facilitate them to participate meaningfully in developmental programmes and hence to explore their socio-psychological dynamics associated with their future plans i.e. career development, to provide necessary inputs in the educational and vocational programmes for women, particularly those who are pursuing higher education.

The year 2001 was celebrated as the Women's Empowerment year b42 / *Career Orientation Among Females of JammuIntroduction* / 42y the Government and the National Policy for Empowerment of Women was approved by the cabinet on March 20, 2001. The policy, too, prescribes strategies and action points to bridge the gender gap in social, economic and political processes. This is in continuity with the major strategy adopted during the Ninth Plan (1997-2002) to introduce a Women's Component Plan (WCP) under which not less than 30% of the funds/ benefits should be specifically earmarked for women's programmes in all the women related sectors. The continuity of these programmes in the tenth plan which enhanced vigor has focused on education, employment and health status of women, especially in the wake of declining sex ratio. The attempts are not exhaustive but only a beginning to a new realization to treat women as equal partner in the real sense. This partnership

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is not to be seen as a leader and a follower but of moving together so that any hurdle can be fought with more vigor. All these socio-political and economic interventionstic programmes aim at 'empowerment' of women, which reflects a certain level critical consciousness about external realities and an awareness about their thought construction and belief system that effect their well being in terms of gender and social justice as well as determination to use their physical, intellectual, emotional and spiritual resources to protect their lives and sustain values that guarantee gender equality at personal, social, economic, political and institutional level (Shaik and Rao, 2003).

Hence women studies courses are expected to inculcate a positive attitude among women, in particular and society in general towards women's vocational and intellectual roles in order to move towards the ideal goal of gender equality in democratic set up of the country.

In order to promote the participation of educated women in productive activities in the wider context of national development, there have been sustained research efforts for understanding of the complex human personality vis-à-vis family background determining their career development. Hence the review of some pertinent studies conducted on different aspects of women development especially with regard to gender bias in education, employment, experiences of working and non working women, influence of maternal employment on child or family, career orientation and related psychological variables, education, employment, among women has been made as report here under:

2.1 GENDER BIAS / DISCRIMINATION

Gender discrimination has its roots in the society right from birth or even before the birth. Sen (2001) discussed seven types of inequality that women experience- mortality inequality, nasality inequality, basic facility inequality, special opportunity inequality, professional inequality, ownership and household inequality.

Pulkkinen et al., (2002) the study was part of the Jyväskylä Longitudinal Study of Personality and Social Development in

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which 151 women and 160 men were followed from age 8 through age 36. Data were collected at ages 8, 14, 27, and 36 using teacher ratings, interviews, and personality inventories. The participants' career paths are defined in terms of "career orientation," which is a composite score made up of four indicators: occupational status, education, present work situation, and career stability. The results for both sexes showed that high career orientation was explained by personality characteristics indicating high self-control of emotions (constructiveness, stability, and compliance), whereas low career orientation was explained by characteristics indicating low self-control of emotions (anxiety, liability, and aggressiveness). Social activity was related to female but not to male career orientation and, correspondingly, passivity was a risk factor for female but not for male career orientation. Gender differences were accentuated in the matter of career stability: both stable and unstable careers were more strongly related to personality characteristics in women than in men. School success and parental SES were more strongly associated with career orientation than with career stability.

Iyer (2007) opined that God created man and woman as complementary beings to each other, but man decided otherwise and enslaved women for satisfaction of his own desires. The role of men and women, over centuries has undergone a little or no change. If at all any change has taken place it is only on increase in responsibility for women. Women are good at multi tasking; so they are increasingly being burdened with multiple responsibilities.

Bandhopadhyay (2007) viewed that in 2001 the sex ratio in India stood 933 for 1000 males. It improved slightly from 927 in 1991. The state in India with lowest sex ratio in the year 2001 was Harayana with 861 followed by Punjab with 874.

Schmitt et al. (2008) concluded that differences between men and women in their personality traits become more extreme with the increasing development of human society. In traditional and less developed countries, an average man is more like an average woman, not in terms of his social roles and value

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preferences, but also in terms of his basic potentialities to feel, think and act in a way more comparable with woman.

Ricco et al., (2009) reported that college mothers with a child between the ages of 7 and 14 years completed measures of their academic achievement motivation, self-regulation as students, and academic self-efficacy along with measures of their approach to parenting a school-age child. Children completed a separate parallel set of largely motivational measures. Mothers' reasons for going to college and extrinsic motivation as a student contributed to the prediction of their children's mastery orientation and academic self-efficacy above and beyond the contributions made by mothers' parenting attitudes. Results also provided modest support for a partial mediation model in which college mothers' attitudes in providing homework assistance and their promotion of mastery goals for their child mediate the effects of mothers' reasons for attending college and degree of self-regulation as a student on children's academic achievement motivation.

2.1.1 Education

Arya (1963) found that early marriage of girls is still a problem in educationally backward states and that is a great hurdle in their education. Some communities in which education has not spread sufficiently among the men, the parents are reluctant to educate their girls beyond certain level because it is taken for granted that the men should be more educated than women. She further added that in urban areas, the acceptance of the need of education for girls is greater than in rural areas. Among the middle class, the acceptance is highest. For the majority of people who live below subsistence level, poverty is predominant factor governing the attitude of girl's education. She gave reasons which can be social as well as economic as large number of girls at the age of eight years are required to do various domestic chores, majority of girls of this age group have to look after the siblings, especially when their mothers are engaged in earning livelihood and some are engaged in contributing to family income by their own labour. The lack of

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facilities for girl's education is also revealed in the study. Today the parents who have not as yet accepted the utility of education for girls find in its irrelevance a justification for their apathy. Since the development of the state and the standard of living of its people depended on the continued efforts of women in agriculture. Education in their opinion was becoming an adversary of progress because formally educated village girls did not want to continue living in village or taking part in agricultural activities and develop a desire for white collared jobs, or urban life in some form.

Pillai (1977) revealed that India is one of the countries in Asian region where figures of educational wastage are the highest. Its main cause was found to be the high rate of drop out among girls.

Ram Subban (1977) explained that discrimination based on gender is not solely an orgasinational problem operating within the scientific community but reflect the values prevailing in the wider society which is governed by hierarchy and particular patriarchy.

According to Government of India report in the 'Education in India' Vol –II, the wastage rates for girls is consistently higher than boys, especially in rural areas than in urban areas and the wastage is maximum at the class 2nd level.

Khan (1979) arrived at a very useful conclusion that the literacy of first child particularly if it is a daughter has a significant influence on the other children. This of course, cannot be generalized too far. Other things being equal it may be generally so. However, the study throws a light on the need to bestow priority on educating the female child.

Metha (1981) found that education however is the key to the progress and unless Indian women are educated, they will not be able to enjoy their rights. The education of Indian women has been sadly neglected in the past. Though the percentage of literacy among women has increased what it was thirty years ago, the disparity between boy's and girl's education is very great.

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Kelly (1985) found that females perception of science and mathematics also contribute to inequality in achievement. It was also found that female students harbour stereotyped ideas about science / mathematics and scientists in general.

Maines and Hardesty (1987) have demonstrated in their study that universal work expectations are common between genders, and that both males and females contain aspirations in regard to high education, work and family values.

Indira (1987) studied the changes in the patterns of role performance, decision making and behaviour patterns as a result of education and employment of women in Hindu families. Her findings indicated that the women's education has helped to usher in changes in conjugal role performance, decision making and behaviour patterns. Employment of women accelerated process of change and helped to check male dominance and this paved the way for equalitarian conjugal relationships. One fact that clearly emerged from her study particularly on the basis of the discrimination analysis is that wives contribution to family resources is a crucial determinant to facilitate the change process in the direction of equality between spouses.

Das and Ghadially (1988) in his study showed that even modernity of one of the parents, irrespective of gender, contributes in the decrease of sex stereotyping of the children. It is interesting to mark the acculturation of flexibility among incongruent and non traditional parents in their socialization pattern. In conclusion, the greater preference for masculine traits and occupations among both boys and girls suggested that need to reconsider the importance of feminine traits and values of our culture, so that the boys can be encouraged to assimilate those traits in their personality configuration and become androgynous persons.

Fatima (1989) found professional and post graduate education to raise the status of women, especially in terms of employment.

Moses (1989) identified that at post graduate level women were generally under-represented. In the same report he identified the reduced representation of women mainly in postgraduate research degrees even though there was increased female

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representation in graduate diploma programmes and masters course work.

Chanana (1990) reported that the disciplines of study have, unfortunately been also divided into masculine and feminine disciplines. For example, arts, social sciences, humanities, teacher education are popularly viewed as feminine disciplines, while commerce, law, engineering and similar fields are viewed as masculine disciplines.

Kantamma (1990) stated that, the higher the education of women, the greater was their participation in decisions making, inter-spouse communication and a progressive opinion of differential issues.

Good and Mint (1990) also showed that within males, men attributed a high significance toward occupational roles, as opposed to family expectations.

Banerjee (1991), Kalbagh (1991), Hargopal (1997) found that constitution provides equal rights and privileges for men and women and makes equal provision to improve the status of women in society. Yet, studies reveal that the majority of women are still unable to enjoy the rights and opportunities guaranteed to them under the constitution.

Shepardson and Pizzini (1992) suggested that a teacher belief about the student's ability affects the manner in which female students operate in the classroom. Such research identifies teachers as agents of gender basis. Also, female students tend to differ from their male counterparts in their receptivity to and participation in science and mathematics education.

Theberg (1993) noted that female students contribute less often to classroom discussion than their male counterparts. In fact, the very conversation girls have and the matters they concern themselves with (i.e. interactional issues) are different from boys. Finally, currently implemented science and mathematics education, which is often competitive and individualistic runs counter to female learning styles which are more cooperative and interdependent in nature.

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Kulshreshtha (1993) concluded that in India, where there is no discrimination on grounds of caste, creed or sex and where in theory each human being has a right to participate in social processes to create conditions of equality for the socially suppressed and disadvantaged sections of society, the disc is heavily loaded against women. Female oppression continues from womb to tomb.

Nehvi and Lidhoo (1994) found that urban educated Muslim women to be more progressive and desirous of major change in the traditional mode of life. Also educated Muslim women from urban background and with high socio-economic status are far more advanced and move towards the acceptance of modern values as compared to educated Muslim women from urban background with low socio-economic status.

Roy (1995) found that female literacy rate is lower than that of males in all the villages, with a higher school drop out rate for girls. Though literacy rate has significantly increased among the young population in the agriculturally developed and occupationally diversified villages, the gender gap also remains significantly very high. He added that in all villages there has been visibly adverse female sex ratio, more so in the below 14 years age group, which signifies an increasing tendency of neglect of girl child. The phenomenon is particularly found in highly agriculturally developed villages and in tribal villages. Agricultural development and occupational mobility has not improved the attitude towards female child among the upper strata. And among the lower strata, poverty drives the family to discriminate against the female child in favour of the male child. Besides, penetration of market forces, commercialization of social relationship and imitation of the urban and upper caste values negatively affect the status of the girl among lower castes.

Pant (1995) revealed in his study that expectations from boys and girls are different. The girls are trained for present and future roles in the family and the fact that they would eventually be going into another family is never forgotten where as the boys are generally educated, trained and inducted into occupations traditionally and is still in practice, property is inherited in male

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line. Rites and rituals are observed for the welfare of males and not for welfare of females.

Shakeshaft (1995) found that science and mathematics classes have expectations that simply exclude girls leading to lower participation and achievement.

Prestage and Lichtenberg (1996) found that gender imbalance in the number of postgraduate research students remains, especially in the traditional male domains of the business, science and technology. This situation continues even though there has been concerted government support though equity policies, funding and other interventions in higher education institutions. Also they found that career goals and modes of study were different for female and male students, male students tended to feel better informed about career options and knowledge about specific jobs available; and "not receiving a letter of invitation" and "needing money" were the main reasons for not enrolling in honours given by females and males offered "time constraint" and "needing a break from study" as reasons for not continuing.

Wenneras and Wold (1997) exposed in a study, the shocking levels of nepotism and sexism in this advanced country where women are believed to enjoy a high status in the society.

Paranjpe (1997) found in her study that in the past, the participation of women in formal education was restricted on the premise that women as homemakers had to operate within the private sphere. The stated goals of education also emphasize preparing girls to perform roles other than those of mother and wife.

Sahay (1998) found that despite strong linkages between women education and their equality and empowerment, female literacy remains very low in India. This is especially the case in rural areas where only about 20-25% of the adult women are literate; this is less than half the rural male literacy rate and roughly one third the urban female literacy rates.

Misra and Aggarwal (1998) in an analytical approach to gender sensitivity in education, observed that social pressures exerted partly by traditions and public opinions, by operation of

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market forces and by other established professions – have limited the professional and therefore educational choices of women.

Joshi (1999) concluded that the changed attitude of the parents in favour of giving education to the younger generation irrespective of the sex. The change cannot be attributed to the economic growth because she noticed high female literacy at Maloh rather than at Nagwain. She further concluded that in spite of active work participation, its benefits have not reached them. They don't have control over the means of production, are discriminated against with regard to wages and have no access to loans etc. in their own right.

In another study conducted by National Science Board (2000) it was found that men are more likely to be employed in business and industry, where as women are more likely to be located in educational institutions, particularly elementary or secondary schools and 2-year colleges.

Spencer and Buckner (2000) noted that the change in perspective of gender differences also coincided with women now for the first time being admitted to many prestigious colleges and moving in large numbers to higher status careers such as medicine, law and business. Women moved on from traditionally female jobs like secretaries, nurses, teachers, book-keepers to other high paying professions entering every male bastion.

Sharma (2001) explored reasons of female participation in technical education in Nepal on the basis of perceptions of female students enrolled in technical and non-technical schools. The study suggest to formulate specific strategies such as female representation in policy making bodies, encourage females to participate in traditionally male dominated technical fields and giving preference to female students with regard to scholarship and recruitment.

Fassinger (2001) found that, in addition to under representation, women's participation in the science, technology, engineering and mathematics fields work force consistently exhibits other problems, such as under employment, field segregation, depressed salaries, and absence at the highest levels of organizational hierarchies.

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Farooquee and Rawat (2001) observed males to be more literate than females, primarily because girls are not sent to schools as they are needed at home to look after small children, do agricultural work in the fields and other odd jobs. There is also a general feeling in the society that even after school; girls have ultimately to engage themselves in domestic and agricultural work.

Chanana (2001) concluded that employment in the IT industry and the management-based industries has been more attractive and remunerative which has had an influence on the choice of specialization and also pointed out that girls have occupied the gaps created in the enrolment for pure science disciplines and the long years of investment in education coincide with the convectional age of marriage for girls.

Fassinger (2002) reported that psychologists who study work place issues have been interested in women's career experiences for more than half a century and they have produced ample description of many of these micro inequalities, discussed as barriers to women's career development in the vocational psychology literature. These pervasive and persistent barriers include external or structural factors such as occupational stereotyping; "chilly" workplace climates and exclusion from information – rich "old boy" networks; a lack of mentoring and discriminatory educational hiring, evaluative and promotion practices. Structural features of the work place (such as inflexible academic tenure timelines) also makes the home work interface difficult for women.

In the survey conducted by National Science Foundation (2002), it was found that despite dramatic increases in the number of women obtaining doctorates in sciences, technology, engineering and mathematics fields (over five fold during the past 25 years), however, women continue to under represent in these fields. In 1999, for example, women constituted almost half (47%) of the U.S College degreed labour force but less than one fourth (24%) of the science, technology, engineering and mathematics fields work force and only 4% of the overall science, technology, engineering and mathematics fields workforce. For

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example, male scientists and engineers are more likely to be employed full-time in their field's highest degree, where as women are more likely to be unemployed, employed part time, or working in fields outside their degrees.

Further in another study by National Science Foundation (2003), it was found that studies of earning differentials in science, technology, engineering and mathematics fields indicate that the gender gap in compensation is due in part to gender differences in promotions. It is well documented that women face difficulties in career advancement and they do not obtain the same levels of recognition for their work as men. There is substantial evidence that women are more underrepresented in senior academic ranks.

Bryant (2003) opined that within a more conservative environment, there existed a larger influence of traditionalism between genders, thus, resulting in career and family priority differences between males and females.

Rachel (2004) revealed that females appeared to value the parental role greater than males. This finding suggested that women give a larger significance towards family priorities than men, who value career.

Tewari (2004) found that among Naai, a backward (OBC) community, status of women is still very low. These women suffer from restrictions on mobility and are denied participation in decision-working and domestic violence inflicted on them has social acceptance. The evil of child marriage is also prevalent in this community. The majority of women are ignorant about their rights, and social resistance also prevents them from getting their legitimate share. The women of this community confines themselves to the boundaries of the family and are not allowed evolving and have access to the modern world.

Bal (2004) in his study of women scientists in biological sciences in central universities and the national laboratories concluded that when it came to permanent faculty positions, women were worse off as compared to men as a proportion of those that had obtained research degrees.

Mukhopadhyay et al. (2004) found that unmarried girls at home were considered a great burden after they had attained

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menarche because of the fear of the girl going astray. They however, acknowledged that early age marriage has adverse psychological and physiological effects of the young girls. They further added that women who participated in the discussion came from rural areas, from under privileged socio-economic backgrounds and little or no formal education. At the beginning of the discussion, it became obvious that these women have little autonomy and no decision-making power even with regard to their health and own well being.

Tyagi (2004) demonstrated the existence of differences in the preferences for sciences, however, exist between male and female secondary students, female students being less inclined towards science as compared to their male counterparts. Secondly, female students show markedly great preference for social studies as compared to male students.

Bhargava and Hiramath (2005) attempted a study in which they found that female literacy rate exhibited a negative coefficient with sex ratio, though it was not significant. The negative coefficient for female literacy rate suggests that the higher the level of the female literacy rate, the lower will be the child sex ratio.

Bamji (2005) observed that gender disparity at all the levels and its adverse impact on women has become the fact of life. This is partly due to biological role and responsibilities of women as mothers, but mostly due to traditional mindsets, which visualize women as being child bearers and homemakers, and men as breadwinners. Among various professional spheres, women seem to miss out more in science and technology, particularly, physical sciences, agriculture and engineering fields. Those who do study science, often end up in what are considered as less challenging teaching jobs. It may be pointed out that these are very fortune women; they managed to combine in science along with managing their homes. Many others would have fallen by the way side, being unable to cope up with the triple burden of home, work and societal prejudices, including gender-related nepotism. With increasing privatization of

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education, this kind of pressure will further increase with greater marginalization of girls form science education.

Dawson (2006) revealed gender differences in student's attitudes to science, in enrolment statistics in upper high school and tertiary level science courses, and in different spheres of the employment.

Gupta and Shukla (2006) indicated that wives' employment results in a shift towards greater participation by husbands in household tasks. This shift has occurred; it is said in response to wife's being in labour force. Other studies have indicated that wives' employment causes major threat and distress among husbands. The present study suggested that a variation in marital quality is also positively related to work involvement. Such a finding does provide hints towards a spill over of positive feelings at work into family living. It suggests that a good well organized family life could be an essential pre-requisite of marital quality particularly among the dual career couples.

Pande (2006) found that the major reason of low literacy rate of women is poverty and attitude towards female education. Financial difficulties may hinder girls to get proper schooling and college education. Parents of the lower socio-economic class think that it is wise to save money for their dowry rather for their education. Whenever there is financial constrain in the family, the first step is to stop expenditure on the education of their daughters.

Lakshmanasamy (2006) demonstrated in a study that the women's education increases her bargaining power within the household and the human capital investments in children. Gender inequalities in education, wages, health and nutrition are widely documented both in developing countries and developed countries, but they are less often empirically analysed to understand the differential returns and more importantly the gender inequalities within the households. In the respect of women's role, the social and economic environment in which the families are raised is crucial. In the context of family, the significance of the pre household formation decision with regard

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to marriage and martial choices determine women's position within the household and her subsequent roles and outcomes.

Subramanian (2007) demonstrated that contrary to the claims made by the institutions in deciding who gets to do science, gender figures at various levels in shaping the career of scientists. Women rarely figure among the meritorious few. In order that women get equal opportunity to participate in the scientific endeavor, the structure and organization of science institutions must be transparent, democratic in their approach and rethink the narrow definition of 'merit' that is currently operative. For example, in India when women start Ph. D degree, there is a considerable amount of societal and family pressure on her to marry. By and large, men prefer to marry women who are less qualified or under placed than them selves, and this means a women is more likely to marry some one who has already got Ph.D while she is working for it. Inevitably his career path gets priority over hers; everyday responsibility towards family and children are still largely shouldered by women. To shape one's career demands keeping the life of man as norm amounts to legitimizing and capitalizing on the prevalent unequal situation that favours men at the expense of the women.

Wizarat and Arya (2007) in their study concluded that the relationship between the availability of disciplinary choices and a women's ability to access them are not directly related nor are they dependent on women's academic achievement. In India, a girl's academic performance is better or at par with boys when they finish school and yet her choices are rather limited. It has been generally observed that employment in service sector is not gender neutral and is influenced, dominated and virtually controlled by males. Women find the working environment unfriendly and insecure. Women who seek science as a career have to face the triple burden of the professional work, domestic work and the life long biases of male chauvinism. If these are the burden that the women in the 'more enlightened and developed' west has to face, one can easily imagine the situation in the impoverished communities of developing countries like

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India, where education and health, particularly of females are issues of low priority.

Appachu (2007) also found in his study that commonly female lives are valued less. Women is obvious involved in events like female infanticide, they have fewer opportunities for education and training, they do not have access to critical health information, their decision-making capability is non-existent and they suffer as victims of domestic violence.

To sum up above studies it can be said that the role of men and women over centuries have undergone a little or no change except an increase in responsibility for women. In urban areas the acceptance of the need of education is greater than in rural areas. Some findings indicate that women's education has helped to usher in changes in conjugal role performance, decision making and behaviour patterns, where as some studies reveal that majority of women are still unable to enjoy the rights and opportunities guaranteed to them under the constitution. It is revealed that female oppression continues from womb to tomb (Kelly, 1985; Moses, 1989; Banerjee, 1991; Theberg, 1993; Kulshreshtha, 1993; Roy, 1995; Paranjpe, 1997; Sahay, 1998; Misra and Aggarwal, 1998; Fassinger, 2001; Farooquee and Rawat, 2001; Sen, 2001; Tewari, 2004; Mukhopadhyay, 2004; Bal, 2004; Tyagi, 2004; Bamji, 2005; Chris and Pam, 2006; Pande, 2006; Lakshmanasamy, 2006; Subramanian, 2007; Iyer 2007; Bandhopadhyay, 2007; Schmitt et al., 2008). On the contrary it has been found that women's education has held to usher in changes in congenial role performance, decision making and behaviour patterns (Indira, 1987; Das and Ghadially, 1988; Fatima, 1989; Kantamma, 1990; Nehlvi and Lidhoo, 1994; Spence et al., 2000; Bhargava and Hiramath, 2005). It may also be noted that females appeared to value the parental role greater than males (Good and Mint, 1990; Bryant, 2003; Rachel, 2004; Gupta and Shkula, 2006; Wizarat and Arya, 2007; Appachu, 2007).

2.1.2 Employment

Rosenfield (1976) revealed that the women in the National Longitudinal Surveys of Mature Women (NLS) (1967-1971) were found to have histories of intermittent employment

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where they were employed. They remained at some occupational level over time. In contrast, the data on a comparable group of men showed that men move up in the occupational hierarchy over their work lives.

Andiappan (1977) found that sex discrimination in employment in developed countries is currently being researched; however, a few studies of sex discrimination have been made in developing countries. Comparison of available remedies for sex discrimination in employment in the United States indicated the paucity of remedies available in India. Article 16 of Indian constitution provides for a quota system-reservation of government job for those born in backward castes and classes. It is recommended by him that a similar quota system, at least in the short run, should be provided for all women since only 2.6% of the federal government employees are women.

Manrov (1978) took a study to identify and compare the basic sex belief of male and female post secondary occupational educators teaching in male oriented, non sex-oriented and female-oriented programs in small, medium and large campuses. He found that sex bias exists among male and female post secondary occupational educators. Males tended to show more sex bias than female educators. Also, the greater the years of teaching experience, the greater the opposite sex bias and general sex bias among post secondary occupational educators.

Hersh (1978) examined all books that appeared on The New York Times Book Review; "Best Seller List- Fiction" during 1974, except historical novels and books set primarily outside of the United States and found that women in the best sellers of 1974 were quite under represented, both in numbers and by the percentage who were employed. This projected an inaccurate image of the changing position of women in society. By this under representation and by the portrayal of so few prominent employed women, the novel served to reflect how society has viewed women in male dominated culture. They may have also reinforced the tendency of employed women to think of their work as their job, rather than a career.

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Ridgeway (1978) hypothesized that college women's decisions to pursue non traditional achievement goals are influenced by other women's and men's evaluations of the traditional housewife as well as the work-achievement role. Degree expectations and career orientation each imply somewhat different conflicts with the traditional female role. On this basis, he hypothesized and found evidence for relationship between each type of achievement aspiration and evaluation of the work role, the housewife role and the importance of the achievements aids. One of the best predictors of both aspiration variables was the father's perceived disparagement of women who are unemployed housewives.

Blumberg & Dwarki (1980) found that Indians are not so broad-minded to accept employed girls. They think the girls are careless and characterless. There are still certain families who like to think that the employed daughter has not ventured beyond the four walls except to the girls institution and back. Teaching would be least objectionable. Thus, a number of women feel that an employed female might still be expected to evidence such as negative traits as questionable moral character lack of domesticity, or too much independence. The surprising fact is that so few share these views.

Rao and Rao (1980) in their study revealed that both sexes expressed traditional attitudes towards the father's role, females expressed less traditional attitudes towards the mother's role than did males. Despite their less traditional sex role attitudes, the actual performance of female's in the family has not changed much. Employed women were found to be responsible for both the domestic chores and outside work. They are expected to blend the domestic and the employee roles in the interest of the family. The availability of servants and relatives has relieved employed women from domestic chores although they are still expected to supervise them. Thus, one finds little change in the traditional expectations of male roles in the family although women's status in the occupational world is changing. The findings of the study may have implications for marriage in the future since women expressed less traditional sex role attitudes

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Although, tremendous changes are taking place in India, they have left the institution of family largely untouched. People are still traditional and have not accepted egalitarian relation in the family.

Dass (1982) found that women are not allowed to make any decisions regarding her life e.g. her right to hold and dispose off property, to choose her spouse and to terminate her marriage. Even if she is working and is supporting her family financially, she is considered secondary in importance.

Devi (1982) inferred that employment of women has contributed significantly to raise the status of women and to inculcate a new set of attitudes, found absent among the unemployed. These attitudes being to shoulder responsibilities play new roles, interact with new people, and face new situations all of which have been traditionally the preserves of man.

Locke, (1983), found that literature examines the effect of factors such as salaries, supervision, and working conditions on job satisfaction. However, little attention has been paid to the influence of personality factors. Locus of control, however, is one of the factors found to be related to job satisfaction (Spector, 1982; Spector & O'Connell, 1994).

According to Shack-Marquez (1984), balancing work and family is thought to be a main contributor to the disparity in wages earned by men and women. He added it is well known that experience is positively related to wages. The same research found that women choose to interrupt their careers because of family responsibilities. Subsequently, it is important to quantify the effect of these interruptions on earning paths as a contributor to the disparity in earned wages.

Deasi & Patel (1985) found that thwarted economic development in marginalizing women from the work force in many sectors while in many modern industries like electronics pharmaceuticals and territory sectors more women are getting employed. But overall participation of the women in the work force has declined in India. As a result, Indian women in the absence of economic independence have to depend solely on the family.

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Indira (1987) found that employment of the women accelerated process of change and helped to check male dominance and this paved the way for egalitarian conjugal relationships. One fact that clearly emerged from her study particularly on the basis of the discriminant analysis is that wives contribution to family resources is a crucial determinant to facilitate the change process in the direction of equality between spouses.

Furthermore, Maines and Hardesty (1987) found that men were likely to view having a family as non-problematic and enviable, whereas, women perceived having a family as compromising to their aspirations.

Giele (1988) found that despite the equivalence of numbers, however the specific jobs held by women and men continue to differ substantially. Man far outnumbered women in the managerial jobs and high prestige professions. Women are more heavily represented in clerical and low status scale jobs.

Good and Mint (1990) concluded that men highly value the "four factors of gender role conflict "(success, power and competition; restrictive emotionality; restrictive affectionate behaviour between men; and conflicts between work and family relations)." Thus men pursue career roles (according to the gender role conflict) over family roles.

Lips (1992) found that while women, are more likely than men to place high value on people related endeavours such as combining career and a family, men in comparison, emphasis more status oriented values.

Arnold (1993) proposed that there is a burden projected upon women which causes them to remain open to the prospectus of marriage and raising children before making career choices.

Although Konek (1994) found in his study of females that 90% of the participants recognized that sex discrimination exists in the workplace, 83% agreed that a woman's hard work will ensure her career success. Similarly, although large majorities of both feminists and non-feminists agreed that the workplace is male oriented, 65% agreed that career women must be prepared to compete on the same terms as men.

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Blair (1994) demonstrated that the university career remains a relatively elite profession for women. There is more direct route to the university career for younger generation as they consider their roles as career makers rather than homemakers. Also it is felt that university remains sexist in its view of women's roles and in its attitude to women faculty.

Murrell (1995) suggested with his findings that some women do not perceive their experience with sexual harassment as a form of sex discrimination yet experiences of discrimination and sexual harassment negatively affect work attitudes for women. Sexual harassment as a form of sex discrimination contributes to a hostile and intimidating work environment.

Amin (1995) showed societies with more oppressive gender systems impose limitations on women's mobility outside the home and also deny them the right to make decisions in the matters related to their lives such as education, medical treatment, participation in economy etc.

Indiresan (1995) opined that benefits of higher education have always been viewed as employment capability. While the number of women employed in the public sphere has increased, their work is often related to suit their so called feminine skills and they function at lower ends of the occupational ladder.

McWhirter (1997) indicted that female respondents anticipated more career barriers than males with respect to their future jobs, female respondents were more likely to anticipate sex discrimination and less likely to anticipate ethnic discrimination than their male peers.

Gowan (1998) found significant gender differences will exist between males and females towards career and family issues, males will be more closely aligned with traditional attitudes towards these roles.

Bagghi (1999) concluded that compounded with the gender ideology of women as the nurturer and man as the bread winner, this dubious model of female power actually stands in the way of equal opportunity and access to public resources – a good example is the girl child. The resultant devaluation of women's productive role as engineers is an 'empowered'

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powerlessness. Culture, gender and developmental biases will have to be questioned simultaneously in order to evolve a strategy and method of confronting the question of women's inequality.

Rudman and Glick (1999) observed that women, although, match men in education, skills and motivation, but, gender bias continues to follow them in job field. They are believed to be less employable and promotable and to have less ability to make decisions and to cope with stress.

Turner and Brown (1999) proposed two possible explanations for the slowing in convergence of male and female students' college major choices. Their explanations include marked variations in the experiences of the men and women working during the college years and women and men attaching different values to the after college opportunities associated with different areas of study.

Arya (2000) found that it is true that since 1970's women issues have gained visibility. There is also a general acceptance of the various ways in which women contribute to the society and economy. Despite the States assertion that its policies and programmes are aimed to integrate women and make them economically independent and self-reliant. These programmes have remained outside mainstream developmental process. A number of women specific programmes and projects were launched but this focus for equality which required a redistribution of resource's through out the developmental process, remained only at rhetorical level.

Fan and Marini (2000) opined that a number of women in different work force steadily expanded in the last few decades and the feminist movements have been far reaching. Yet there has been a little change in gender stereotypes.

Statistics Canada and Weinberg (2000) concluded that despite the efforts to eliminate gender discrimination, occupational sex segregation remains a feature of the Canadian and American workforces.

Kumar (2001) illustrated that women do not advance reasonably soon to the next rank, but remain in the same rank for the longer time.

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Luzzo and Mc Whirter (2001) reported that women anticipated more career related barriers than did man in a sample of undergraduate students.

Kang (2002) says reinforcing gender roles, that a modern house wife is fast, active, intelligent, confined to the home but commanding the kitchen. She is caring mother, loving partner, devoted wife, ideal daughter whose happiness ranges around the health and happiness of the family.

Elkins (2002) concluded that women differentiated plaintiffs on the basis of gender, where as men did not, because employment discrimination was personality threatening to women but not to men.

Godbole (2002) found that jobs are seen as more important for men than women because traditionally in upper caste middle class family men are the bread winners.

Battle and Wigfield (2003) found that women took into accounts the costs associated with obtaining future careers and establishing a family.

Hultin (2003) viewed that women are concentrated in the sectors of employment that offers low pay, little power and prestige, as well as limited access to main stream career paths. Transition from these occupations into integrated or male dominated fields of work is one form of upward occupational mobility for women. Women are disadvantaged in comparison with their male counterparts in terms of access to promotions. Indeed, men in female dominated occupations have significantly better career mobility prospectus than do similarly qualified women.

Banerjee (2003) reported that in India, individual socio-demographics, including education and income, socio-cultural norms and caste are associated with women's opportunities for political participation.

Preeti (2003) found no gender differences in occupational aspirations and family environment of the students.

Nikhat (2004) found that females are also discriminated in the field of education, employment and wages and that of political representation.

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According to Chevalier (2004), not only goals but also values may play a role in the highest gender imbalances being found in engineering, education, arts and mathematics. While men are more likely to recognize career development and financial rewards as important long term values, women distinguish personal development, job satisfaction, and doing a socially useful job as important long term values. Even when accounting for motivation and expectations, women seem to be more likely to work in the public sector than men.

Even a bleaker picture is presented by, Rose and Hartmn, (2004) who argued that conventional method of measuring the wage gap is misleading because it does not account for half of working women in labour force, who work part-time or take time out of the labour force, to care for the family. Their long term gender earnings gap, which measures both women's earnings losses in a given year and the cumulative effect of balancing the family and work responsibilities on women's earnings, indicated that women earned 62% less than men earned over a 15 year period (38% compared to the Department of Labour's 78% figure)

While career opportunities are rapidly expanding in fields like computer technology, computer engineering and system analysis, women's employment in these technology – driven careers is lagging behind men's, widening the occupational gap between the genders (U.S. Department of Labour Women's Bureau, 2001).

U.S. Department of Labour, Bureau of Labour Statistics, (2004) reported that the gender gap remains wide in more established fields like mathematics, engineering and the physical sciences; for example, women still made up only 11% of all engineers in 2002. Though their overall representation in managerial and professional specialty occupations increased over the last two decades (from 22% in 1983 to 34% in 2002), women continue to be over represented in the lowest paid occupations within this broad category; for example, women comprised 19% of dentists but 98% of preschool and kindergarten teachers and 93% of registered nurses.

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Schultz (2004) revealed in his study that in print advertisement and television commercials, women are often depicted as sex objects.

Bal (2004) revealed, that when personal connections matter in achieving targets, women scientists can easily lose out, since personal interactions of women scientists with male colleagues would be deeply constrained by the standard patriarchal cultural barriers of so called morality.

The findings of Singh (2005) confirmed the view that even if the wife is working, decision-making power is mainly exercised by husbands, although there could be a marginal variation in the individual's families.

Chen et al. (2005) reported that women's involvement in politics varies throughout the world, yet research consistently shows that in many parts women still linger on the fringes of the political realm.

Farrell (2005) demonstrated that men are 50 times more likely than women to be the primary or sole bread winners for their families, and even well educated and more ambitious, whereas women are less committed to their careers and less willing to make sacrifices for them.

Taylor (2006) noted that on television talk shows camera tends to take close-up of male guests' faces, but entire body shots of female guests. This way media only reinforces stereotype of men as superior, powerful and as thinkers and women as subservient, inferior, incapable of thinking and as sex objects.

Anitha (2006) viewed that Indian society still reflects the predominance of the traditional role of females as wives and mothers. The social role of girls remains accentuated in the educational years. Hence, pursuing a career does not necessarily redefine her traditional familial responsibilities. Because of this, women are at a disadvantage resulting in relatively lower performance in career comparison to men. As a result, women occupy less powerful positions in the hierarchical structure of their career ladder leading to lower representation of women in decision-making positions.

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Sumer (2006) compared the men and women as middle level managers and found that women as compared to men were perceived by all participants to be relatively high in relationship oriented and relatively low in task orientation and emotional stability.

Subramaniam (2007) found that science establishments in India perceive that the reason of under-representation of women in science is 'marriage and family responsibilities.

Rai (2007) found that in in-numerable ways, women in our society are made vulnerable economically and socially, by gendered cultural practices across the nation. Gender embeddedness seems so pervasive that even those women who are in places of higher learning have not been able to escape these constraints.

Ghosh (2007) concluded that age-old gender stereotype of women as inferior and an object of sexuality persists. Media that is clearly patriarchal keeps it alive in its promulgation.

Hazarika (2007) found certain primary obstacles in women's involvement in politics: burden of household work, lack of family and community support, lack of finances, cultural barriers and male domination in decision making, educational backwardness and lack of political consciousness.

Beaton et al. (2007) found in his investigation of the reactions of women to bridging programmes rests on the premise that individual attributes orient attitude towards career development among women in traditionally female occupations.

In short, above studies indicate that men far outnumber women in managerial jobs and high prestige professions. Women are highly represented in clerical and low status scales jobs. Also it is found that societies with more oppressive gender systems impose limitations on women's mobility outside the home and also deny them the right to make decisions in matters related to their education etc. It is found that sex discrimination in employment all over the world exists though in varying degree. (Andiappan, 1977; Blumhagen, 1978; Blumberg and Dwarki, 1980; Dass, 1982; Desai and Patel, 1985; Giele, 1988; Murrell, 1995; Amin, 1995; McWhirter, 1997; Gowan, 1998; Battle and

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Wigfield, 2003; Luzzo and Mc Whirter, 2001; Godbole, 2002; Banarjee, 2003; Elkins, 2002; Schultz, 2004; Farell, 2005; Anitha, 2006; Hazarika, 2007; Rai, 2007; Beaton et al., 2007). On the contrary some studies have shown positive change in women's life, such as employment of the women accelerated process of change and helped to check male dominance and this paved the way for egalitarian conjugal relationships. (Indira, 1987; Munson et al., 2000; Arya, 2000; Fan and Marini, 2000). It is also evident from the studies that women remain at the same occupational level over time (Rosenfield, 1976; Kumar 2001; Hultin, 2003; Nikhat, 2004).

2.2 EXPERIENCES OF WORKING AND NON WORKING WOMEN

Chandrakant (1971) observed that marriage as a barrier in professionalism may resolve itself with the highest technological progress, expanded social services and, the weakening of family ties. But till the professional woman spells out uncompromisingly for herself at least her first and second priorities, there can be no guarantee that the conflict that still exists in India in some measure between woman's total private happiness and her total fulfillment as a professional, will be reconciled, so that she gets the best of both worlds.

Kapur (1972) found that to some extent, marriage stands between the women and her total commitment to a profession at the highest level in India.

Sengupta (1974) found that though working women are a welcome part of the society in the developed countries, in India there are still large groups of tradition-bound people who regard a women who works as one who has missed her role in life for there is nothing more sacred and respected than to be a mother and a good wife.

Benham (1974) noticed that empirical studies have shown that male earnings increase with women's education and occupation.

Drust (1977) found in his study of determining common characteristics, attitudes and perceptions which existed among women in top level educational administrative positions that

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women held only 2.21 percent of the top level school administrative positions and felt they were discriminated in hiring and promotion, but marriage and children were considered to be a help and not a hindrance to their career.

Blumberg & Dwarki, (1980) concluded that employment in India was viewed as hazard which exposed girl to too many temptations and hence could sully her value and prevent the attainment of her most important future role, that of wife. Further, they added that women who try to meet the traditional role obligations of Indian wife and mother also spend many hours away from home in paid employment experience a 'role overload' or a 'double day'

Desai (1984) observed that the college going girls manifested relatively high mean score on scientific and achievement motivations. There was no difference on the modernity of the girl students coming from the rural and urban background. There were positive views regarding family planning and scientific knowledge concerning this subject, cooking as the main role activity, and living in a joint family after marriage, while negative views were expressed against the dowry system.

Khokhar (1984) found that working mother in India feels herself being pulled in opposite direction she finds herself daily weighing and reweighing the advantages of wanting her cake and eat it too. Their attitude towards their work is found to be ambivalent. They like to work because of independent income, individual status and intellectual stimulation, yet they dislike it because of stress and strains.

Sinha (1985) observed that education among women had initiated conductive elements of attitudinal change and thus their attitude had changed, though moderately, towards family life, martial union and career in which they were active and vital participants.

Menon (1985) concluded that even today a woman's economic status in rural India is not determined by the wage she earns, but by her husband and her family status. Marriage is the main career for the women in rural areas; all her activities revolve around her family.

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Damodara (1985) concluded in rural areas even today a woman's economic status is not determined by the wage she earns but by her husband and her family status. Marriage is the main career for women in rural areas; all her activities revolve around her family.

Kakati (1990) found though husbands and parents were in favour of employment of their wives and daughters. Still working women could not draw sympathy from family members.

Mannan (1991) concluded that working women face problem like job strain, role conflict, sexual harassment, inadequate house hold help, financial dependence and other occupational hazards. It was further stated that men showed ambivalence in allowing their wives to work at same time, objecting to their social and economic freedom. Marriage and family was still found to be considered as primary and predominant as compared to career. The feeling of guilt and neglect affected their job productivity and efficiency and earned them a poor reputation as workers.

Barling and Mac Ewen (1991) demonstrated an indirect effect on job performance of inter-role conflict, which was mediated by self reported attention and concentration problems; role commitment and inter-role conflict as discriminable constructs and differently related to outcomes.

Dua (1991) concluded that working women were found more modern in their outlook in all the areas such as religion, family planning and caste etc. Effect of age, type of family, caste and income group or familial role expectation did vary as also modernization of outlook.

Dean (1992) found that women still have major responsibility for child care and house work regardless of their employment status. Furthermore, statistically significant independent relationships were found between workloads in the family and symptoms of illness among women.

Kelley et al. (1992) concluded that education and employment has brought about self-reliance, confidence and a sense of identity in the women. As a result being educated and

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employed, they are now better turned out, outgoing, open to new ideas, well informed and aware of their rights and surroundings. They can identify and cope up with their problems better as they have a lot of exposure and access to the world. They are much of their own individual now, on the road to emancipation. This change on women's part, that is, education and employment has got significant implication not only for the women concerned herself, but for her family too.

Arnold (1993) revealed in his study that men and women are frequent confronted with conflicts pertaining to future goals. Specifically, research has shown that choices regarding life roles made in college exert a tremendous amount of pressures on females. Women exhibit high levels of anxiety regarding career and family decisions. Furthermore, it is believed that women have tendency to progress, or choose potential careers avenues, slower then men in order to assess their future options.

Bharat (1995) reported that career women still perceive their domestic role more important than the economic provider role.

Jacobson and Levin (1995) found that women who leave the work force are more likely to be married and have children where as their counterparts who remain in the workforce are less inclined toward family and children. He also found that the wage difference between the women who work continuously and the women who interrupt their careers.

Roy (1995) concluded that with the intervention of new technology, rural woman as a social category has been segregated and casualized. In the labour market, their position has become insecure. In the family and society, they have been marginalized, with hardly any participation in decision making, hardly any share in the fruits of development and hardly any access to the productive resources, education and training facilities. The societal norms and values of rural India have legitimized these processes of segregation and marginalization. He also established that changes in the organization of production, stimulated by introduction of advanced technology and commercialization of agriculture have increased women's work burden and

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responsibilities across classes and castes, without increasing their share in rewards, or their voice in the decision-making processes both within and outside their family.

Mittal (1996) concluded that if women's unpaid work is properly valued it is quite possible that women would emerge in most societies as the bread winners or at least equal bread winners since they put in longer working hours then men do. The report concluded that women's work remain grossly unpaid, unrecognized and undervalued.

Pandey (1996) opined that working women have higher level of anxiety, fatigue, guilt, extraversion and arousal compared to housewives causing adverse influences on the martial and social adjustment.

Pillai and Sen (1998) investigated the life of working women with regard to their dual role as professionals and family care takers. Results of their study indicated that as low as 7% of working women are able to harmonize their dual roles.

Mukhopadayay (1998) found that in India, an increase in female employment outside the home has occurred during the last few decades, especially in the urban areas. Working-women may face difficulties in attempting to fulfill the demands of both worlds, at home and outside, while a housewife may feel tired and irritated with household chores and financial dependence. All this may cause stress for these groups of women.

Purushothaman (1998) found poor women worked longer hours than men, usually starting at 5 or 6 in the morning and ending at 10 or 12 in the night. This was because women bore the double burden of productive and reproductive activities. Their primary role as care takers of the family did not change regardless of their wage earning status. Despite this double work day interviews with government officials, census and other official statistics, and women's opinions of themselves confirmed the overarching view that women were economically unproductive. Women, themselves, perceived the work of their husbands to be more important than their own work. Modernization has on the one hand legitimized women's right to work and on the other, marginalized them from economic production through the erosion of women's traditional occupations.

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Nathawat and Mathur (1999) found that housewives frequently complain about the monotony of their lives. They feel that they have to look after children and do the housework and they do not have time for themselves.

Kapoor and Bhardwaj (1999) explored certain facets of career among women employees of public and private sector. The results suggested that except for executions of private sector, women derived satisfaction from family relationships, whereas career integrated with their life in a secondary way. Women employees too report that husbands' career plans often interfere with a married woman's career commitment.

Gore (2000) found the concepts of unpaid work and its implications has been the subject of considerable discussion in India and West (Coverman 1983, Hartmann 1981, Patel & Krishan Raj 1982, Mies 1980, Oakely 1974, Pleck 1985). In the urban context there is a greater possibility of demarcating areas of paid and unpaid work. While in towns and cities women still continue to perform endless household chores, they are more likely to do so in addition to work for the wage. The need to weigh commitments and responsibilities often results in giving more preference to one role namely that of homemaker than to another.

Stevart and Valeric (2000) provided important information about the collective stresses that women face, such as the struggle to receive adequate salaries and regular child support payments, the notion of divided loyalties between work place and child rearing responsibilities, power imbalances related to the politics of one's work place, emotional restrain in the work place and isolation resulting in the lack of communication.

Muchinsky (2000) found in his study that contemporary developments pose a great challenge to the dual career men and women, and balancing work and family demands become arduous and has far reaching implications for people, organizations and society. Aminabhav and Kulkarni (2000) concluded that the working women have significantly higher martial adjustment as compared to housewives / non working women.

Grant et al. (2000) pointed out that women sometimes forego marriage, and / or motherhood, limit choice of partners,

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and also limit number of children, Managing the coordination of work and family becomes a third full time job for the women who do it, even though it is rarely recognized as such. At least till recently the support system for a women in India has been better, one gets the extended family to support and share in domestic responsibilities.

Rani and Yadav (2000) observed in their study that the working women who had a more demanding job (in terms of time and job stress) had a lower anxiety score as compared to working women whose job was less demanding.

Jain and Gunthey (2001) studied that work status and dual role of working women influences their mental health. Results of the study indicated that non-working women had better understanding, more martial satisfaction and fulfillment of expectations whereas the working women perceive little personal responsibilities for martial outcomes. Working women reported more hassles, less support, more psychological adjustment problems higher level of mental health hazards.

Battle and Wigfield (2001) found that men continue to dominate prominent jobs with increased wages over women.

Mathur and Bharti (2001) found that most women are financially, socially and emotionally dependent on men and have lower personal expectations. Hence the husbands in the families enjoy more opportunities for influencing adjustment than their wives. But the employment provides the wives in dual career families, scope for challenge, structure and self-esteem besides an increase in family income. Moreover, salient needs of employed women are different than housewives. While housewives tend to have greater differences affiliation, nurturance, and endurance, employed women tend to have higher achievement, autonomy and dominance.

Panchal (2002) proved that women rural doctors, teachers and administrators have shown better mental health than urban doctors, teachers and administrators. Urban doctors and rural administrators have shown better martial satisfaction than that of rural doctors and urban administrators.

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Aujla, et al. (2002) advocated that effects of psychological stress and use of stress management techniques were more prominent in working women as compared to non-working women.

Hundal (2002) found that there is significant difference between the social and psychological problems of professional and non-professional educated women. Social and psychological problems of professional and non-professional women vary with socio-economic status and educated women of rural and urban areas but not related to age. Also social and psychological problems vary with the levels of education.

Griffin et al. (2002) revealed that the main reason of the high frequency of unadjustability in non-working women could be their familial and social status, low control at home, low education and their involvement in limited number of roles. Women in our society has more household responsibilities, face domestic conflicts, abusive relationships and enjoy less privilege, less rights, less social and economic freedom.

Bharat (2003) has noted regardless of wives' employed status, domestic responsibilities continued to be shouldered by women and perceived as their primary duty in life. Full time employment thus is an added responsibility for women.

Kaur, et al. (2003) concluded that personal factors of women respondents and non co-operative attitude of husbands towards different family responsibilities are contributing factors to conflicts with the husband. Personal factors of women respondents, at home and at work level, were more responsible for conflicts in both teaching and non-teaching categories than non-co-operative attitude of husbands. Main effects of these conflicts included negligence towards children, irritated behaviour of husband and wife and tension, depression and unhappiness among them.

McRae (2003) showed all workingwomen face constrains in making decisions about their lives. All non-trivial decisions have opportunity costs (things that must be foregone) as well as real costs.

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Linville (2003) observed that joining the business life outside home is an extra burden on the part of women who have already been responsible for baby-sitting (child-rearing) and other household chores and it may lead to psychological problems. However, the studies carried out in various countries show that it is not the case. Working has a positive psychological influence on women especially those from the lower socio-economic class. In a comparison of working and non-working women, the study showed a positive and statistically significant relationship between the 'health score' and 'anxiety score'.

Chondankar (2004) found that in the work place, women of slum area have to contend with mental and physical stress, long hours of work and harassment of middlemen and supervisors. On the domestic front they manage merger resources to feed a large family and have to submit to both beatings from their husbands as well as torture from their in laws, who resort to it as a way of venting frustrations. In spite of their adverse circumstances, the women perform their dual role with utmost sincerity and integrity.

Garbrecht (2004) concluded that even when women explored non-traditional aspirations and identities, they are committed to more traditional ones, demonstrating a relationship between identity development and previous research on gender roles and traditional aspirations. He further added, gender roles and career aspirations are highly valued components of identity. When men and women construct their identities, they make, choices about what roles to prioritize, balancing their interests and abilities with societal expectations. For the psychological well being that comes from committing to identities that are socially valued, men and women often choose gender traditional careers.

Blake (2004) put forth two ways to look at women and work. One way supposes that women have a limited amount of energy. Each role drains part of that energy, so the more women do, the worse off women are. It is the family role that gives women the most stress, work is clearly not the culprit. Planning

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child care and day-today support systems are an important part of being a successful wife, mother and career women.

Bal (2004) found that women can not spend so much time in office because they feel that they have some responsibility towards their family and children.

Kumthekar (2004) found more confidence, ambition and assertiveness in the case of working women as compared to non-working women.

Wilson (2005) examined the pursuit of equal pay after the second world war to reveal the debate among women's 'skills' and 'worth' as workers and in society. He found that women worked in record numbers yet did not undermine the ideology of the male bread winner, because the public considered their earnings secondary and believed men still had prime responsibility for family support.

Benton (2005) in his study addressed the effect of female occupational choice on family migration by examining the specific forces through which the occupations affect mobility. The paper, categorized the occupational characteristics as "mobility supply" the occupational cost of moving, and "mobility demand" the potential occupation benefit from moving. The results of the study showed that married individuals in occupations that are more easily transferred across geographical areas (higher mobility supply) are more likely to move than their single counterparts as they are 'pulled' by spouses with larger geographic job markets (higher mobility demand). The results also showed that women employed in occupations with high costs to relocating are much likely to be pulled by their husbands. Since the major shift in women's occupational choices has been towards these occupations with high costs, the results imply that joint migration decisions will continue to have a significant effect on household relocation.

Bamji (2005) concluded that women scientists have never asked for any special privileges. What they have asked for, are enabling mechanisms, crèches, day-care centres for elderly, flexible working hours, part time jobs and campus housing etc. Some organizations do not allow married couples to work in the same place. This has affected the career of many women.

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Harshpinder and Aujla (2006) revealed that, on an average, working women were experiencing more sociological and psychological factors of stress as compared to non-working women.

Iyer (2006) found that while women are primarily involved in the domestic labour, non domestic production also takes part of their time. Non-domestic labour however, is characteristized as an extension of household activities. Participation in the less productive activities serves to reinforce their secondary status and subordination. Women in modern industrial societies are still at economic disadvantage.

Singh (2006) concluded that lives of women working in brick kiln are exhausting and tough because of double burden of working at home as well as at work site. They hardly get any time for recreation or leisure activities. This section of migrant female labour is no better off than other poor women in the unorganized sector, with ignorance and illiteracy compounding their economic and social suffering. Although all of them contribute to family survival, it is unfortunate that they do not receive any independent income and have to depend upon men entirely.

Hymowitz (2007) reported that women have great difficulty following the same career path as that of the men. The study revealed that most working women take some type of work to intentionally avoid advancing for a while so they have time to care for the children and elderly relatives. Getting back on the fast track is difficult for them.

Naieema (2007) concluded that working and non-working women differ significantly in their level of aspiration. Further, the difference in the mean scores goes in favour of working women. Also, working and non-working women differ significantly in their level of adjustment and difference in mean scores goes in favour of working women.

Patra and Suar (2007) reported that in Indian context, spouses in dual-career families still continues to be governed by the traditional values and norms of gender roles and women in

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general are unable to use their career status as a resource to alter their image from homemakers to co-providers.

Kundu and Rani (2007) revealed in their study that employment status and the educational level plays a positive role in enhancing the social status of the women workers. Working women enjoy the highest status both within and outside the families.

Above studies shows that women at work face constraints in making decisions about their lives and non-working women had better understanding and more martial satisfaction. It is believed that a working woman has missed her role in life for there is nothing more sacred and respected then to be a mother and good wife. (Chandrakant, 1971; Kapur, 1972; Blumberg and Dwarki, 1980; Kakati, 1990; Mannan, 1991; Dean, 1992; Mittal, 1996; Bharat, 1995; Pandey, 1996; Purushothman, 1998; Mukhopadhyay, 1998; Nathawat and Mathur, 1999; Gore, 2000; Jain and Gunthey, 2001; Battle and Wigfield, 2001; Mathur and Bharti, 2001; Aujla et al., 2002; Griffin et al. 2002; Kaur et al., 2003; Bharat, 2003; Mc Rae, 2003; Linville, 2003; Chondankar, 2004; Garbrecht, 2004; Singh, 2005; Harshpinder and Aujla, 2006; Hymowitz, 2007; Iyer, 2006; Patra and Suar,2007).

On the other hand some studies advocate that working women have significantly higher martial satisfaction and were found to be more modern in their outlook (Benham, 1974; Sinha, 1985; Dua, 1991; Kelley, 1992; Rani and Yadav, 2000; Aminabhav and Kulkerni, 2000; Panchal, 2002; Hundal, 2002; Kumthekar, 2004; Naieema, 2007; Kundu and Rani 2007).

It is also evident from some studies that inspite of adverse circumstances, the women perform their dual role with utmost sincerity and integrity. The women folk, especially with higher levels of education are in dilemma to choose between the traditional female roles, i.e. wife and mother within the home and non-traditional roles, i.e. career-person outside home. In case of the latter, the role of former still goes and hence the duality of the role for career women still continues.

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2.3 EFFECT OF MATERNAL EMPLOYMENT ON FAMILY / CHILD

Baruch (1972) concluded that mother's working outside the home tends to have salutary effect on girls. Her study revealed that daughters from the families in which the mothers worked tended to admire their mothers more, had a more positive conception of the female role and were more likely to be independent.

Hoffman (1980) found that besides education, married women's employment also influences the development of the children. He added, there were measurable differences in academic performance and other measures of children's well-being depending on maternal employment status. Similarly young children's socio-emotional development was also observed to be influenced by early and extensive maternal employment.

Weber and Miller (1984) suggested that mothers are role models for their daughters'. Careers or skilled jobs are significantly more likely to influence them during their adult lives. This study implied that mothers who worked in more prestigious jobs are influential on a daughter's career directions than other mothers.

Khokhar (1984) found that working mother in India feels herself being pulled down in opposite direction. She finds herself daily weighing and reweighing the advantages of wanting her cake and eat it too. Their attitude towards their work is found to be ambivalent. They like to work because of the independent income, individual status and intellectual stimulation, yet they dislike it because of stress and strains.

On the other hand, Pleck and Staines (1985) found that when wives worked a rotation schedule, it discouraged their husbands from spending time on the child care.

Parry (1986) studied that mother with dependent children are at relatively high risk for mental health problems. Employment reduced this risk when social support was available, but increased it in the absence of social support.

Nock and Kingston (1988) found differences in the amount of time parents spend with their children depending on maternal

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employment status, although the differences were most pronounced for parents of preschoolers.

Belsky and Eggebeen (1991) stated that children whose mothers were employed full time, beginning in their first or second years of the life, scored more poorly on the compliance component of the composite adjustment measure than did children whose mothers were not employed during the first three years.

Chikodikar (1992) investigated that it is the women only who is expected to adjust with the family and not the man. Kelley et al. (1992) found that mothers with higher levels of education use more child-centred parenting (that is to be more responsive to and accepting of their children's needs and inductive reasoning when disciplining their children).

David (1992) concluded that self-esteem of daughters of working mothers was higher than those daughters where mothers are full time housewives.

Marlow (1993) indicated that married women with children had more problems in coping up with their work & family lives than did their childless peers. But, there were few differences between single & married mothers' ability to cope up. Also need for services was similar for women in all family configurations.

According to Wilson et al. (1995), there was a direct relationship between mother's educational level and her child rearing behaviour.

Muller (1995) reported that mothers imposed less structure or regulation on the child's out of school activities when they were employed full time. She stated that these children spent more time to unsupervised activities after school and were less restricted in the amount of time they watched television. It was thus concluded that children are neglected in homes where mothers were employed. Besides this, she found that parents imposed fewer structures or regulations on the child's out of school activities when the mother was employed full time. Mother's employment also influenced the father child relations. Fathers were seen to be responsible for the child care when their wives were employed part-time rather than full time and when their wives worked on day shift.

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Luthra (1995) found that a working mother is not a threat to her family and children. She is more helpful to her children in overcoming the problems. Children of working mothers also understands the problems, their mothers have, because of their dual careers. So, they are more cooperative with their mothers. A married woman with a career has twin interests to guard, yet she has been able to maintain the balance between the motherhood and career.

Kaur (1996) reported that the attitude of the career oriented women whose mothers were in waged employment towards small family norms, was more positively developed than the attitude of those group of women students whose mothers too were in waged employment and had marriage orientation.

Pazy et al. (1996) showed that among women of weaker career orientations, willingness to increase commute was higher when their job was incongruent with their career aspirations. Mothers of young children were less inclined to travel more.

Dixit (1998) found that women think that it was very difficult to work in a business organization as a married women with a child and it was quite clear that no encouragement was given to women even to think of continuing to work after having a baby and this particular problem was particularly pertinent to the younger women interviewed, most of whom were married.

Nath and Samal (1998) revealed that adolescent girls of working mothers were less stressed and aggressive.

Sunita et al (1999) reported that irrespective of mother's employment and amount of time spent by mother with child, the quality of mother child, interaction has an effect on development of language in children.

Galinsky (1999) concluded that mother's employment in and of itself has virtually no ill effects on children's development. Maternal employment has no negative effect on child's self concept.

Crouter et al. (1999) reported that fathers were more knowledgeable about children's daily lives in middle childhood when their wives worked long hours a day. It may be due to the reason that fathers with employed wives do not have liberty to

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think that there is a mother at home who is always available for the child care as in case of fathers with unemployed wives.

Muhonen (1999) investigated the effects of individual and situational factors on the career development of women. The sample consisted of 399 women managers from both the private and public sectors, and also women from both male- and female-dominated careers. Muhonen found that both individual factors (work, locus of control, educational level) and structural factors (male hierarchy and support from spouse) were related to the female's managerial advancement. Additionally, the results revealed that both situation – and individual – related factors could also provide some hindrance for female career development.

Linclon (2000) explored topics such as the changes parent hood caused in the women's career. It showed that the working mother has created a satisfactory balance between their professional and family lives. They depend upon the support of their spouses and others to meet all demands of their lifestyle.

Olrate (2000) found that social expectations for the women plus the scientific biological determinates of their gender have consistently put women in double mind; if they challenge the traditional cultural expectations they are not feminine enough but if they comply with this role they can be seen as dependent immature, infantile or passive. Professional women in work place have experienced this double standard and if they are also mothers, they have to accommodate to their multiple roles while being aware of social ambivalence towards their desire to actualize both their professional and their parenting roles.

Anand (2001) concluded that it was often felt that work was not a 'primary' role for women, it was 'secondary' and leaving a secondary role would not be that difficult. Thus, women would not have much of problem leaving the role and adjusting to new one, unlike men for whom work is considered to be the major source of identity. Also, most of the women confirm that they are working due to economic necessity. One of the main issues that strongly hinder the work of women is the sexual harassment. She further observed that women were not involved in the decision-making in the areas of investments and property

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matters. Conclusively, many women are not yet acquiring expertise in these areas and prefer to be dominated by their male counterparts.

Manimeklai (2002) observed that working mothers had greater role in decision-making than non-working mothers as far as education and marriages of their children are concerned there by indirectly indicating that working mothers are more demanding than non-working mothers.

Botsari and Makri (2003) found that children with working mothers feel more competent in school than children with unemployed mothers. Moreover, mother's occupational status has an indirect effect on children's self-concept through maternal depression and children's perceived scholastic competence.

Wilson (2005) showed that working mothers themselves, however, began to defend their work by arguing that a good mother was not the one who stayed at home, but one who worked and put herself out for the good of her family life.

McElory (2005) found that when children enter the picture, some women begin to reconsider the balance between their commitments to work ideals and their commitment to traditional gender roles when making self employment decisions. Even today for many women, family needs trump career aspirations, and the career paths they follow are determined, at least while children remain at their home by practical considerations rather than their ideology.

Man Yee Kan (2005) found that presence of dependent children has little or no little negative effect on a work- centred woman's chance of being engaged in full time work.

Nakahara (2006) found a childcare support from adult substitute care givers, is essential for the children of non-working mothers with limited resources.

Weer et al. (2006) found a positive relationship between the extensiveness of maternal employment and expected work-family conflict anticipated delaying marriage, limiting the number of children they will have, and in case of men, intending not to have the children. There was no relationship between expected

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work family conflict and the anticipated use of career-altering strategies.

Singh et al. (2007) observed that parent-child relationship is significantly determined by the educational level and employment status of woman in the family. Education on the part of women brings about positive changes in their own and their husbands' parenting style. Highly educated women and their husbands' believe in symbolic punishment, object reward and are more demanding and discourage negative parenting practices like object punishment. They consider child rearing to be the joint responsibility. So, indifferent attitude and neglect by father in such homes is comparatively less. Employment of the women makes them and their husbands more demanding and more follower of object reward with their children. It also makes fathers have less indifferent attitude towards their children, but only when mothers are highly educated too. The only problem associated with employment of the women, is the neglect children face due to it.

The attitude of career oriented women whose mothers were in waged employment towards small family norms, was more positively developed than the attitude of those group of women students whose mothers too were in waged employment and had marriage orientation.

In nutshell it can be said that some studies say in favour of women employment that mother's employment has no ill effect on child rearing and working women has created a satisfactory balance between their professional and family lives. (Baruch, 1972; Hoffman, 1980; Weber and Miller, 1984; Kelley et al., 1992; Wilson et al., 1995; Luthra, 1995; Nath and Samal, 1998; Kaur, 1996; Sunita et al., 1999; Galinsky, 1999; Crouter et al., 1999; Manimeklai, 2002; Botsari and Makri, 2003; Wilson, 2005; Weer et al., 2006; Singh et al., 2007). Where as on the other hand some studies show that it is only women who is expected to adjust and married women with children had more problems in coping up with their work and family lives (Khokhar, 1984; Pleck and Staines, 1985; Paray, 1986; Chikodikar, 1992; Marlow, 1993; Muller, 1995; Pazey et al., 1996; Dixit, 1998; Linclon,

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2000; Olrate, 2000; Rani and Yadav, 2000; Anand, 2001; Mc Elory, 2005; Nakahara, 2006).

2.4 PSYCHOLOGICAL MAKE UP OF FEMALE STUDENTS

2.4.1 General Studies: Self-Esteem, Achievement Motivation, Locus of Control and Intelligence

Wilson (1967) concluded that women do report approximately the same level of global happiness and life satisfaction as men, but at the same time they are more likely to report greater levels of both negative and positive affect. Self-esteem is a strong correlate of subjective well being (SWB) primarily in individualistic societies. In contrast, a woman with a substantial income and a satisfying marriage who is healthy and conforms to the religious beliefs of her culture is very likely to be satisfied with her life.

Chandrakala (1969) found that inspite of the persistence of reformers and the various acts passed against early marriage, nearly one-fifth of the girls from the age group of 10-14 are married in India, though this is two percent low in Maharashtra. In urban and educated sections, the opposite is the case. Marriage is no easy solution to a majority of girls. Except ten percent of the unmarried girls, who have no desire for marriage drift to higher education and /or service and those ten percent wait for the suitable match which their parents would arrange for them.

Mitchell, Smyser, and Weed (1975) reported the importance of locus of control on the workplace. According to Gordon (1978) career oriented women in general tended to manifest high self-esteem more often than non-career oriented women in general, irrespective of sex-role orientation.

Bandura (1978) concluded that self efficacy expectations will impact the initiation of a behaviour the amount of effort expended on a task and the degree of persistence in a task in the face of obstacles and aversive experiences. Male and female vocational choices may result from their different but equally important goals for their lives as well as their expectations to be

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able to successfully execute required behaviours for their career choices.

Hackett and Betz (1981) noted that self-efficacy is researched mediator of relationship between person's ability and his or her own choice of various careers.

Harrison (1981) attempted to establish relationships between locus of control, self-esteem, and traditional-nontraditional behavior. It was hypothesized that (1) women tending toward internality and high self-esteem should be more likely to manifest nontraditional behaviors, as evidenced through career-oriented roles, and to rank these roles as their primary source of satisfaction; and (2) women tending toward externality and low self-esteem should be more likely to manifest traditional behavior, as evidenced through family-oriented roles, and to rank these roles as their primary source of satisfaction. The sample consisted of 91 White females in a southern metropolitan area. The data were collected using a survey design. As expected, high self-esteem internals were more likely to manifest nontraditional behavior. Contrary to expectation, low self-esteem externals were more nontraditional in role orientation.

Devi (1982) inferred that employment of women has contributed significantly to raise the status of women and to inculcate the new set of attitudes found absent among the unemployed. These attitudes being to shoulder responsibilities, play new roles, interact with new people, and face new situations all of which have been traditionally the preservers of man.

Spector (1982) found that individuals with an internal locus of control were best suited for professional or managerial jobs, where they were more likely to perform better and be more satisfied.

Spector (1982) suggested that locus of control is related to a number of variables in organizational settings, including motivation, performance, satisfaction, and turnover. Both Locke (1983) and Spector (1982) found that individuals with an internal locus of control orientation appear more motivated, perform better on the job, express higher job satisfaction levels, and have lower attrition rates than individuals with an external locus of control.

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Gupta (1983) revealed that his study gives a new way to thinking that need, levels of aspirations, pay and age don't play important role in developing frustration as is generally conceived. Home, health and socio-economic conditions of the teacher, doctor and nurse had the important place in her life and in helping her to make a good adjustment or maladjustment, not needs, level of aspiration, pay or age. These groups are academically high groups and had enough reasoning to distinguish between good and bad to understand the circumstances.

Deasi (1984) revealed that the college going girls manifested relatively high mean score on scientific and achievement orientations. There was no difference on the modernity of the girl students coming from rural and urban background. There were positive views regarding family planning and scientific knowledge concerning this subject, cooking as the main role activity, and living in a joint family after marriage, while negative views were expressed against the dowry system. On the whole participation and preferences in different types of activities reflected changing roles, due to higher education.

Resinol (1988) found that locus of control was significantly correlated with job satisfaction. Chaudhri (1988) found positive change of attitude towards female education and co-education and female employment was reflected in her study. Respondents believed that education and employment provided higher capabilities to women for adjustment in adverse situations.

Rao & Rao (1988) found that males expressed more traditional attitudes while females embraced less traditional attitudes. Consideration of the changes occurring in Indian culture such as urbanization, technological development, employment of women, increase in female enrolment in educational institutions and western influence on social attitudes towards the acceptance of women's employment should be taken in account in examining the differences in sex role attitudes between males and females. The less traditional attitudes of females towards sex roles can be explained in terms of the perceived changes in status, power and prestige of employed women. Outside employment is seen as a sign of independence and equality between the sexes. It is

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considered as a means to escape the traditional 'status trap'. Further they found that developing societies like, India are undergoing tremendous structural changes that are affecting various dimensions of the family. In recent times, the status of women is changing socially, politically and economically. By attending colleges and universities, culturing the occupational world, and moving into the political arena, women are contributing to the development of Indian society.

Kumari and Sethi (1990) studied college going female student's career and family values in relation to self-esteem the analysis of data revealed that college girls with self-esteem had higher career values and lower family values.

Longwe (1990) found that empowerment through awareness building, capacity building and organizing women leads to transformation of unequal relationships, increased decision making power in the home and community and greater participation in politics. Women's development can be viewed in terms of hierarchical levels of equality i.e. welfare, access consistent, participation and control.

Devi (1991) found in his study that possession of physical amenities was highest among doctors and college lecturers followed by school teachers and nurses, the least being with women working as casual labourers. Further, possession of physical amenities was positively related to education and income of respondents.

Dhalke (1992) found in his study that college senior female had lower levels of self-efficacy and life satisfaction than the post college women. No significant differences were found between the traditional and non-traditional career choice.

Konek et al. (1994) reported that income level; self-esteem, self respect, cohesion and autonomy were major advantages of dual career women and hence were willing to tolerate work loads and stresses.

Suvarna and Thomas (1995) found the fear of success to be positively related with femininity and negatively with self-esteem among women in the range of 40-45 years. However, high and low femininity groups differed in fear of success.

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Gopalan (1995) showed that emergence of women to vary significantly as an economic resource. It is most significant to notice that employment of women has trebled just during the last decade from 31.3 million in 1981 to 89.8 million in 1991, while during the same period, employment of men increased only by a little over 50% from 149.2 million to 224.4 million. The varying rates of increase of women's employment in the organized and unorganized sectors have lowered the proportion of women's employment in the organized sectors.

Diener and Fujita (1995) found that the effects of demographic variables are probably mediated by psychological processes such as goals and objective life circumstances, but there is probably no path from these variables to happiness. Furthermore, there are many different resources that are related to people's goals and these resources are only modestly correlated with each other. Therefore, any single resource is unlikely to have a strong effect when analysed across people.

Bajaj (1995) found that with urbanization and modernization changes are occurring in the belief and practices of people. Therefore we can say women are better placed in the society because a number of women have found that they get autonomy, freedom of action and participation in decision making of the families. Major reason to go for the employment though remains economic still enough number of them has gone for jobs due to psychological and social needs.

Ojha (1996) determined achievement orientation values among students pursuing higher education that pertain to pessimistic-optimistic, present-future and familistic-individualistic domains, which positively determine academic success leading to better career options.

Betz and Klein (1996) found that career decision-making self-efficacy to be the specific aspect of career self-efficacy, most strongly related to generalized self-efficacy, and is also related to global self-esteem. It may be speculated that having high self-esteem and self-efficacy means that the individual does not perceive as many barriers as individuals with lower self-esteem and self-efficacy.

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Betz and Voyten (1997) demonstrated that high efficacy expectations, particularly those with respect to the skills of career decision-making have been associated with lower levels of career in decision.

Farmer and Waugh (1999) found that stereotyping is believed to have an effect on career choice when comparing career preferences of men and women.

Tarver et al., (1999) concluded that positive job satisfaction and an internal locus of control orientation was found among male, female, younger, older, those without doctoral degrees, those with doctoral degrees, and university student affairs administrators, on the one hand, and male, younger, older, those with doctoral degrees, and university academic administrators, on the other, a significant relationship was not found to hold among minority, female, those without doctoral degrees, and community college academic administrators. Thus, in the former but not the latter groups, job satisfaction was associated with taking greater responsibility for behavior and assuming more personal control of lives. Differences did exist between job satisfaction and locus of control among different groupings of administrators.

Barren (1999) investigated the effects of existential-phenomenological counseling on Locus of Control, self-efficacy, and aggression on the career development of police officers. The sample consisted of 24 police officers with 12 in the experimental group (group counseling interventions) and 12 in the control group (no counseling interventions). Barren found that an external Locus of Control predictor was that of undesirable behaviors.

Brown (2000) viewed that career-decision-making self-efficacy refers to the beliefs in competencies with respect to the behaviours necessary in a particular career-relevant domain.

Dixon (2000) established that there was a significant relationship between intellectual ability and competence in females and there is a correlation among self-concept (job scholastic and intellectual ability competence) and career maturity.

Pandey et al. (2000) revealed in his study that children of service group parents were found to have significantly better achievement motivation as compared to their counterparts.

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Pulkkinen et al. (2000) showed that high career orientation was explained by personality characteristics indicating high self-control of emotions (constructiveness, stability and compliance), where as low career orientation was explained by characteristics indicating low self-control of emotions (anxiety, liability and aggressiveness).

Fassinger (2002) observed that current gender socialization practices tend to undervalue women's achievement, compromise their leadership behaviours, and lead to problems such as low self-efficacy and self-confidence, multiple role conflict, and ineffective coping.

Baumesister et al. (2003) found that despite the obvious significance of self-concept in everyday life and research, however, the directionality of effects between self-esteem, domain-specific academic self-concept, and academic achievement remains hotly disputed. People with high self-esteem possess a positive overall view of self. They appreciate who they are, consider themselves to have many good qualities and would not want to change places with others. People with a low self-esteem, in contrast, have an unfavourable self view. They added that a positive self view leads to higher achievement.

Valentine et al. (2004) supported the view that a higher academic self-concept leads to higher achievement. Taylor et al. (2006) observed that career-decision making self-efficacy has been the most prominent predictor of vocational decidedness and exploratory career activity in college undergraduates.

Gomez (2006) indicated that the perceived quality of the roles differentially predicts the health indicators (distress symptoms, cardiovascular risk, anxiety, depression and self-esteem) studied. Psychological health indicators are more strongly predicted than the cardio vascular health indicators by role quality. Self-esteem and anxiety in men and depression in women are more strongly predicted by the perceived quality of roles.

Pulkkinen et al. (2006) investigated the link between child and adolescent adaptive behaviour and psychological functioning, and the role of career orientation in this linkage. Adaptive

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behaviour in childhood among females in terms of self-control of emotions, constructiveness, compliance and trustworthiness, was associated with length of education and occupational status at later stage to determine psychological functioning that is well being and self-esteem in early middle age.

Kaur (2006) found that women who are career oriented want to get some dignified jobs and their first priority in the life is to achieve their career target. Marriage is not of higher significance for them. She further found that career oriented girls generally have a concept that education is going to enhance their marriage prospects and marriage oriented girls motive is to get married to suitable husbands and produce children and look after them.

Poonam (2007) found no differences in career choices of high and low achievement groups of students. Kaur (2007) established that the college female students with high self-esteem are more career oriented as compared to their counterparts with low self-esteem.

After the perusal of above studies, it can be concluded that self-esteem is a strong correlate of subjective well being (SWB) and a woman with substantial income and a satisfying marriage is very likely to be satisfied with her life.(Wilson, 1967; Bandura, 1978; Gordon, 1978; Hackett and Betz, 1981; Desai, 1984; Chaudhri, 1988; Devi, 1991; Konek et al., 1994; Bajaj, 1995; Kaur, 1996; Koch, 1998; Brown, 2000; Dixon, 2000; Panda and Jean, 2000; Baumesister et al., 2003; Valentine et al., 2004; Singh, 2006; Pulkkinen et al., 2006; Ojha, 1996; Kaur, 2007).

Some researchers believed that current gender socialization practices tend to undervalue women's achievement (Rao and Rao, 1988; Longwe, 1990; Gopalan, 1995; Dhalke, 1992; Diener and Fujita, 1995; Suvarna and Thomas, 1995; Fassinger, 2002; Gomez 2006).

Locus of control orientations have been shown to have a powerful effect in a variety of work environments, both for workers and the organizations that employ them (Locke, 1983; Sharf, 1997; Spector, 1982; Spector& O'Connell, 1994).

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2.4.2 Career Orientation

Gordon (1978) concluded in his study that women who prefer careers outside the home often define sex role by a 'self' orientation while non-career-oriented women seem to view themselves from the more traditional (other) sex role perspective. Also, college women defined sex role by a balanced 'orientation' while non-college women manifested an 'other' sex-role orientation, career-oriented women in general tended to manifest high self-esteem more often than non-career-oriented women in general, irrespective of level of sex-role orientation.

Faver (1981) rightly observed that women vary in their values that they assign to attainment through family or career activity.

Faver (1982) suggested that women, who pursued "high-level' careers and continued greater occupational aspirations, appeared to value high quality career roles over family roles.

Strange and Rea (1983) investigated the relationship between sex role and career choice and found significant difference between sex role classification of women in female dominated majors such as elementary education and women in male dominated majors such as design technology. A large percentage of feminine typed women (48.1%) were found in female dominated majors, while the largest proportions of females enrolled in traditionally male majors were found to be masculine / instrumental typed (34.0%).

Metzler et al. (1985) found masculine interests discriminated career women from homemakers. It will be found that number of women intent on a career higher in cosmetology group than in the upper level mathematics course. The masculine interests combined with the high feminine attributes composed the dominant androgynomy sex role orientation of the cosmetology group.

Tanwar (1987) explored the relationship of sex-role orientation, self-esteem and socio-economic background to career and family values among college females, and found college females with a more positive self-image and having androgynous and masculine sex-role orientation are more career-oriented while

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maintaining their family orientation, both at high and low level of socio-economic status.

Maines and Hardesty (1987) indicated that universal work expectations were common between gender in both males and females, have aspirations in regard to high education, work, and family values.

In a descriptive study, Courtney (1988) indicated that; eight of the twenty career values had an achievement or affiliation orientation; career values appeared to be a limited function of socio-economic level and of amount of education of mother; career choices seemed to be more complex function of characteristics such as education and socio- economic level as indexed by the mothers education and occupation, and demographic variables appeared to predict career choice to greater extent than did career values.

Arthur et al. (1989) found that some career theorists see careers only in terms of the work one performs.

Swanson and Tokar (1991) found that gender differences exist in the salience of career barriers perceived by Euro-Americana college students. More specifically, female college student's perceived discrimination and dealing with sacrificing career for children, child care concerns and role conflict as greater barriers than males, while males were more likely to indicate financial issues as barriers to career goal attainment.

Gustafsan et al. (1992) proposed in an article that among females, high educational motivation in adolescence is related to the young adult orientation towards home making. Also the results demonstrated educational motivation at age 15 comprised a valid indicator of career versus home making orientation at age 26.

Luzzo (1993) failed to confirm a relationship to age differences, between career decision making, self-efficacy and student status, in relation to age differences, which suggested that traditional and non-traditional (i.e., older than 25 years) students generally have the same level of confidence in their ability to perform variety of career decision-making behaviours.

Savage and Fouad (1994) found that college women enrolled in traditionally female majors had lower career aspiration

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and career commitment levels than their counterparts in gender-neutral majors; they also indicated plans to combine work and family more often than women in gender neutral majors. These findings suggest that many women who have both the access to education and the ability to succeed may not fulfill their intellectual or economic potential.

Konek et al. (1994) established that the most important factor is the women's occupational success in her personal motivation to succeed. The future will be better for women because they will have to work hard to advance themselves. Those who are closest – primarily family members and personal friends – are those most likely to provide support. Participants did not see government as a reliable source of solutions of personal problems or of strategies for career success. They did not anticipate legal solutions to problems in the future. He further added that career women advocate working harder and better on an individual basis before they advocate seeking collective policy or legal changes. They place most of their faith in their ability to overcome the odds – even if they are built in the systems in which they live and work – and to achieve individual success. Women's attitude towards their professional lives, leadership aspirations, and sense of social responsibility suggest that one woman's definition of a professional women applies to many: "One who gives hundred percent of her self to her job – takes opportunity to grow in knowledge and skills – is willing to learn – treats others with respect – can be aggressive yet feminine – accepts challenges." Konek's results revealed that at least one source of a tendency seen repeatedly through out the study: the sense that the sacrifice and struggle of career women's lives are worth the rewards. Those women seek responsibility and leadership opportunities; they are highly motivated; and they express a commitment to a social vision that expands leadership beyond professionalism.

Luzzo (1995) demonstrated that females, across age and national context, have higher scores on career maturity measures than males.

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Suvarna and Thomson (1995) found fear of success to be positively related with femininity and negatively with self-esteem among women in the range of 40-45 years. However, high and low femininity groups differed in the fear of success only in case of women with self -esteem.

Johnson (1995) found that women did not formally plan their career paths they did experience barriers and they developed strategies to overcome them. Strong personal and professional reasons fueled their life long passions for career and education.

O'Brien (1996) explored the contribution of psychological separation and parental attachment to constructs related to the career development of adolescent women. Results of the study suggested that high school women who experienced similar attitudes to mother, reliance on mother for assistance in daily functioning, conflicting feelings towards mother and freedom from the need for approval closeness and emotional support from father evidenced very strong career self-efficacy beliefs and moderate levels of both career orientation and realism. Thus this indicated that young women who experienced attachment to their mothers and were moving towards the independence were interested in pursuing a career, selected careers which were mostly consistent with their ability and felt highly efficacious with regard to choosing a career, continued attention to the career development of young women over time is critical in order to further differentiate among the individual, relational and societal variables that promote healthy career development as well as occupational success and satisfaction for women.

Hoath et al. (1998) revealed that among different career orientation groups of community policing careerists were highest in job satisfaction and among assignment categories. The officers in investigation and administration were higher than those in patrol in their career orientation.

Matsui et al. (1999) reported perceived social pressure and externality combined interactivity, to moderate the relationship between instrumentality and career orientation among Japanese college women; a significantly lower relationship (between instrumentality and career orientation) was noted for

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women high in both perceived social pressure and externality as compared to women low in one or both among these variables.

Reyes et al. (1999) revealed the general male dominance of females' career aspirations, compared to females aspiring to highly female-dominated careers. Females aspiring to highly male dominated careers were more acculturated, earned higher grade point averages (GPAs) and higher achievement scores in science and social studies and held higher educational aspirations and expectations.

Mukhopadhyay (2001) conducted a detailed study on science education and occupations among girl students in India, and pointed to the reasons that prevent girls from opting for science, particularly physical sciences, mathematics and engineering as disciplines of the study. The study found that gender did not determine aptitude, or natural inclination for these subjects. Societal mindsets and pressures, particularly in patrifocal families, determined the ultimate preference, the educational path that ultimately ended up in household assignments or in the jobs, where their real knowledge or resources could not be utilized.

Morgan et al. (2001) viewed that men and women tend to chose different career paths, but it appears that for both genders it is the interest in a given career that plays the central role in choice of a future occupation. Motivation and vocation goals then appear to follow different patterns for women and men when choosing a career, women continue to value interpersonal goals – such as self-determination, helping people, on working in a pleasant environment – more highly than other types of goals.

Singh (2001) has reported that the traditionally low paying areas (arts & education) have higher female enrolment. The pure science and medicine show lower enrolment of women than men, and still much lower in engineering and technology.

White (2001) found that female students have outnumbered male students in higher education for nearly 30 years. In 1997, women comprised 55% of undergraduate students and almost 58% of the students at community colleges. As a result,

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community college leader need to be aware of the experiences and context in which re-entry women are coming back to school and provide support services and programs based on their specific needs to encourage their persistence.

Arya et. al. (2002) found that vocational interest plays a crucial role for the future of the children during school going years. Boys and girls, they further said, have equal interest in the field of technology, art and entertainment.

Fassinger (2002) demonstrated in his study that career salience appears to reflect a very strong work ethic and a great deal of early planning for and thinking about one's career but less career orientation expressed relative to family importance. This pattern is reinforced by satisfaction rankings, in which participants listed family first and then career as the two most important sources of expected satisfaction in their lives. In addition, they indicated greater interference in family by work than interference in work by family. Overall, these findings suggested that this sample of women valued both family and career highly, with a bit more importance placed on family. These results are consistent with contemporary literature in psychology of women, which indicates that most women plan to combine work and family in their adult lives. His study suggested that the homework intersection both affects and is affected by woman's attempts to move forward in her career. Indeed, the vocational psychology literature has established clearly that for women, marriage and children have more impact than any other variables on women's career trajectories and career success.

Raffaele and Crawford (2002) found that boys limited their aspirations to more male dominated careers with higher prestige, while girls expressed interest in both male and female dominated options. The study also found that boys and girls attitudes towards careers had very little to do with the types of careers to which the students aspired.

Behnke (2004) found only one half of the women were aware of their career's aspirations. Non-working women articulated several barriers of achieving higher educational or occupational aspirations.

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Fassinger et al. (2004) found that women, for whom career is most salient, for example, may handle personal or family responsibilities in a way that preserves work obligations first; they might minimize home-career conflict by forcing family and personal obligations to fit within the context of work obligations (e.g., remaining child free or combining vacations with professional conferences), and therefore, they might not experience the home-work intersection as stressful or confliction. Conversely, women for whom home-career conflict is felt strongly may deliberately minimize the importance of their careers (both perceptually and behaviourally) to prioritize family goals, thus reducing home career conflict.

Pulkkinen et al. (2002) showed that higher career orientation was explained by the personality characteristics indicating high self-control of emotions (constructiveness, stability and compliance), whereas low career orientation was explained by characteristics indicating low self-control of emotions (anxiety, liability and aggressiveness).

Mary Blair-Loy (2004) observed in Austria that economic capital and university degree were generally necessary for becoming a manager. Women were expected to devote themselves to home and family. Employed women were less likely than men to attain managerial positions; due to informal barriers they faced in achieving higher education. So, the flexibility but pervasiveness of gender inequality across these capitalist and state socialist societies may be seen.

Rachel (2004) observed that females held higher expectations for having a family, rather than a career. Likewise, males showed a preference for occupation, as opposed to marriage. Consequently, males viewed having a career as a greater importance than having a family.

Man Yee Kan (2005) found women who have followed a home-career path hold consistently more home-centred attitudes over time than women who have been committed to their employment careers. But the findings could not rule out the possibility that women's employment careers are still constrained. The most work-centred women (as revealed in their gender role

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attitudes in the nine-year period), despite having being committed mostly to a full time work still have displayed a certain degree of discontinuity in their career pursuits. Finally, contrary to corollary of the preference theory, the relationship between the gender role attitudes and women's participation in labour market work is reciprocal rather than unidirectional. That is women's work-orientation is endogenous to their labour market experiences.

Singh and Neeta (2006) clearly indicated that profession is not a significant factor, while the age of women is significant in a study on 'depression among women professionals'. They found negative correlation between stressful events and depression in the first group in comparison to another two groups.

Haley (2006) reported that women on non-traditional career paths scored lower than did women on traditional career paths. There was a significant difference between the two populations. Career alone did not have a significant effect on attitude towards women in society, but also family. It might represent a response to society's pressure for women to be less traditionally oriented than they have been.

Huang (2006) found occupational and life careers were significantly related indicating that the paid work career is embedded in the overall life role structure through out the life course. Individual agency factor predicted life career. Occupational career was related to life career more than family context. He added that occupational career did matter in work well being.

To sum up the above studies it may be observed that the women who prefer careers outside the home often define sex role by a self-orientation while non-career oriented women seem to view them from the more traditional sex role perspective. Women who pursued 'high level' careers and continued greater occupational aspirations, appeared to value high quality career roles over family roles (Gordon, 1978; Faver, 1982; Metzler et al., 1985; Starange and Rea, 1983; Tanwar, 1987; Swanson and Tokar, 1991; Gustafsan, 1992; Savage and Fouad; 1994; Konek et al., 1994; Eccles, 1987; Johnsen, 1995; Singh 2001; O'Brien,

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2000; Fassinger, 2002; Behnke et al., 2004; Singh and Neeta, 2006; Mary Blair Loy, 2004; Fernandez et al., 2006; Huang, 2006).

It is also observed that females held higher expectations for having a family rather than a career (Reyes, 1999; Mukhopadhyay, 2001; Rachel, 2004; Fassinger, 2004; Man Yee Kan, 2005; Haley, 2006).

2.4.3 Correlates of Career Orientation among Female College and University Students

Narullaha and Naik (1971) stated that the education system conspicuously debarred women except in case of those from higher castes, where as women could achieve ordinary levels of education leading to literacy. In such an arrangement, the family took the responsibility of training women for the predominant roles of housewife and mother.

Richardson (1974) found that career oriented women were found to be highly career motivated and perceived the career role as primary in their adult lives. The second cluster was called work orientation. This orientation characterized women with well-defined occupational aspirations who placed a high value on both the career role and marriage-family responsibilities in their future. Work oriented women tended to choose traditionally feminine occupations in contrast to career oriented women whose aspirations included higher level and less traditional occupations.

Ries (1977) found that career orientation in college women is increasing. The factors shown to be positively correlated with career orientation were grades in school, mother's employment, mother's educational level and the factors having little correlation were age, time spend in college, martial status, cooperative house membership, job held and type of job of parents.

Gaffari (1979) tried to examine in his study, that the relationships of the selected developmental and situational factors to career aspirations and expectations of adult women. It was found that the internal psychological barriers as well as situational factors related to the women's prescribed sex role may in part be responsible for low participation of women in high paying prestigious professions.

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Kolbenschlag (1979) predicated that women's limited representation in traditionally male-dominated field would be their chief obstacles in gaining upward mobility in professional work roles, women's failure to master the special languages and dialects of numbers, of finance, of technology reduces them to "immigrant" status in many male-identified fields; inevitably, women are trapped in job ghetto. Having been put through the double strainer of socialization and education, occupational segregation will finally enclose their aspirations within permanent boundaries.

Lighter (1981) revealed that parental attitude towards working women, was the most potent variable in terms of both significance and meaningfulness in predicting female adolescent career orientation and attitudes towards working mothers.

Faver (1983) concluded that career orientation is negatively related to age, reflecting greater career interests among younger women. Also in all martial and parental status categories, high proportions of the young women are career oriented suggesting that career interest persists through the periods of family formation and expansion. The greatest discrepancy between career orientation and rate of full time employment occurred among married mothers of pre-school children, suggesting that career plans are deferred during early motherhood.

Lowell (1987) examined the effects of bio-demographic, personal tenure, economic, civilian alternatives and job related factors on the career orientation / turn over decisions of female Naval officers and it was suggested that manpower planners need to bring changes in policies to increase career orientation of female Naval officers.

According to Eccles (1987), sex differences in gender role definitions and in hierarchy of values stem from differential socialization experiences and internalization of both overt and subtle culturally defined gender roles. The resulting interest patterns and personal beliefs may influence the occupational difference between men and women.

Rao & Rao (1988) demonstrated in their study that in addition to sex, father's education and community size are both

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powerful predicators of attitudes towards mother. Father with higher education has daughters with more liberal attitudes towards the wife and mothers roles. It should be noted that although some of demographic variables explained the variance in the sex role attitudes of the Indian students, their attitudes are still fairly traditional.

Das (1988) in her study indicated that parental beliefs and attitudes regarding women's role in society appear to be crucial in shaking the personality structure of the children. Modern parental outlook and egalitarian sex role attitude is conducive to the development of androgynous adults, and in contrast, conservative attitude results in stereotyping. The findings from incongruent families show that even modernity of one of the parents, irrespective of gender, contributes in the decrease of sex stereotyping of children. It is interesting to mark that acculturation of flexibility among incongruent and non-traditional parents in their socialization pattern. In conclusion, the greater preference for masculine traits and occupations among both boys and girls suggests the need to reconsider the importance of feminine traits and values of our culture, so that boys can be encouraged to assimilate those traits in their personality configuration and become androgynous persons.

Mohan (1989) found that women prefer a higher level of education for their daughters than that achieved by them. Women with less education still feel that girls should not be encouraged to take up courses in engineering, they neither should be allowed to stay in hostels, nor should they be encouraged to go out of their home towns to receive education. Irrespective of the level of education, while majority of women disagree that man should be sole bread winner in the family, they agree with the view that women should work to supplement the family income.

Chanana (1989) concluded that attitude to employment has changed but not radically and daughters are trained for a career only under certain circumstances.

Moses (1989) pointed out that a range of barriers might apply to female students considering progress in honours and post graduate study and it seems that some of these barriers need

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no further confirmation. But, there are some areas that need attention, such as institutional structures and conventions which could continue to act as barriers to women.

Kumari and Sethi (1990) studied 100 college girls who were classified as high and low on self-esteem on the basis of median split of their combined scores on a self-acceptance test. The career and family values scale was administrated to these groups to determine their differential level of career and family values. The analysis and data reviewed that college girls with high self-esteem had higher career values and lower family values.

Biasaria (1991) found that parents of girls had been willing to send them to colleges despite their being economically well off largely because of their lower academic achievement. Parents saw vocational education as a facilitating factor for marriage and lot of school girls simply got into the vocation being pursued at home because they had to make a living.

Swanson and Tokar (1991) argued for three categories of barriers: social / interpersonal, attitudinal and interactional. Social / interpersonal barriers were defined as barriers regarding one's family of origin and future marriage and children. Attitudinal barriers were described as those primarily "internal" in nature, such as self-concept, interests and attitudes to work. Interactional barriers were defined as those difficulties relating to demographic characteristics (i.e., age, sex and race), preparation for work (i.e., work and experience) and the work environment. They further determined that students perceived their greatest obstacles of getting their first job and career advancement as a combination of job availability and their own qualities and skills.

Schulenberg et al. (1991) investigated influences on adolescent career interests to determine whether gender differences would be moderate by educational aspirations, career certainty, grade level and level of parent's education.

Dyer (1992) found family support for the entrepreneurial career could also have an impact on career choices.

Arnold (1993) attributed the outcomes to lowered career aspirations possibly due to female beliefs regarding family-work conflict. In other words, women lowered their career goals to

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avoid future work conflict and experience fewer family life demands. This finding suggested that external factors (such as occupational stress) tend to lower women's desire to achieve career goals.

Grinstad and Way (1993) concluded that the family plays an important role in transmission of values such as independence, ambition, career orientation and actual career choice.

O'Brien and Fassinger (1993) reported that the adolescent girls who valued their career pursuits had liberal gender role attitudes were instrumental and efficacious with regard to careers and were moderately independent of their mothers. In turn, the girls who selected non-traditional and prestigious careers were found to have high ability and agenetic characteristics as accessed by instrumentality and career decision-making. An inverse relationship was found between career orientations and traditionality; girls who were oriented towards accomplishment in their careers were more likely to select non-traditional careers and girls who were less oriented towards occupational achievement tended to select traditional careers.

Vermeulen (1995) identified the factor affecting the career decisions of graduate women students and found that, they were affected by their families and their rural community (social context), changes overtime in societal attitudes (historical context) and differences in the stages of their lives (developmental context).

Chhikara and Lata (1995) studied that the socio-economic factors such as parents' occupation and family income were significantly associated with adapative behaviour of children.

According to Silverstein (1996) men and women appear to hold differing views regarding the perceived barriers facing women's increasing career success. While both men and women are optimistic about women's advancement in the future but women disagree to man's belief.

Pazy et al. (1996) showed that among women of weaker career orientations, willingness to increase commute was higher when their job was incongruent with their career aspirations. Mothers of young children were less inclined to travel more.

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Kumari (1996) reported that college women with non-traditional sex-role attitude do not differ in their career salience as compared to those with traditional sex-role attitude and fear of success does not affect in any way to determine career salience among college women.

Luzzo (1996) determined that among undergraduate college students, career decision-making self-efficacy is related to the number of future perceived barriers, such that an increase in perceived future career-related barriers is associated with a decrease in career decision-making self-efficacy.

Chanchalor and Sansanwal (1998) reported that higher level of parental education was associated with love type raising of children.

According to Ex and Janssens (1998), one possible influence on women's beliefs about sex roles is their mothers. When looking for variance in sex role attitudes among young girls, they found that mother's sex role attitude had a direct bearing on their daughters' attitude. A mothers' level of education was also an indicator of more non-traditional sex role attitudes in both mothers and their daughters.

Pulkkinen et al. (2000) studied and found that career orientation is a composite score made up of four indicators; occupational status, education, present work situation and career stability. The results of both the sexes showed that high career orientation was explained by personality characteristics indicating high self-control of emotions (constructiveness, stability and compliance) whereas low career orientation explained by characteristics indicating low self-control of emotions (anxiety, liability and aggressiveness). Social activity was related to female but not for male career orientation. Gender differences were accentuated in the matter of career stability; both stable and unstable careers were more strongly related to personality characteristics women than in men. School success and parental support were more strongly associated with career orientation than with their career stability.

Saluja (2000) found that women in the study differed in their exploration of different careers and in their commitment to

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a particular career. The educational decisions of these women were influenced by a common set of factors. These included parental influence, marriage and family plans, and cultural expectations.

Purnag and Sharma (2000) indicated that highly educated parents are highly demanding and encourage their children to aspire for more challenging goals in life.

Correll (2001) stated that cultural beliefs about gender influences the early career-relevant decisions of men and women.

Luzzo and McWhirte (2001) conceptualized barriers as being career-related or education-related.

Dennis and Susannah (2001) found that women in rural areas tend to marry and are less likely to attend college than urban women. The decision to marry early and not attend college correlates with parent's expectations and socio-economic status.

The findings of the study of Kumar (2001) related to social class differences. Women's choice of career in science is influenced by cultural and economic factors. It was found that the socio-economic background and educational levels of the parents of women scientists were significantly higher than those of their male peers. The social class of urban women scientists was also higher than those with a rural background. This demonstrates that parental attributes influence through high family income and cultural advantages-girls' education to a much greater degree than in case of boys.

Caldera et al. (2003) showed that Mexican American women's commitment to a career choice was influenced more by their instrumentality and less by their expressiveness or their parents; Non-Hispanic White college women's commitment was influenced by familial factors rather than by intrapersonal factors in the study. These findings underscore the need to investigate intrapersonal, contextual factors and culture in women's processes of committing to a career choice.

Nepper (2003) investigated the factors influencing career orientation and career aspirations of early adolescent girls and found that daughter's gender role attitudes are influential in shaping career orientation for Americans and career aspirations

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for German girls. The German maternal gender role attitudes affect the career orientation and career aspirations. The American maternal gender roles affect only career orientation. Finally, the mother-daughter relationship directly influenced career orientation for Germans and career aspirations for American girls.

Bryant (2003) concluded that the perception of appropriate roles of men and women's is one of the variables that may also affect career choices. Also, having a college education is one factor that has been shown to increase the non-traditional sex-role attitudes of students with respect to the activities believed to be appropriate for women. Both male and female students' levels of traditionalism declined during college. Although change was similar across the gender, women held more egalitarian views than men did at both college entry and four years later.

Begum (2004) through her findings concluded that the number of earning member's in the family, mother's education and working status influences socio-cultural modernization of college going Muslim girls.

The results of the Keller (2004) revealed that parental behaviours are significantly related to the career development of young adolescents.

Carlson et al. (2004) found the relationship of internal career orientations with three forms of work family conflict (time-based, strain-based and behaviour based) is examined in his study. In addition, work family conflict is considered bi-directionally, using both work interference with family and family interference with work. The findings suggested that those with getting free internal career orientation experienced the greatest levels of strain based work interference with family and both behaviour based forms of conflict.

Farrell (2005) viewed that women do enter male-dominated fields; they tend to enter the more glamorous occupations. The characteristics of the types of work to which, women tend to be interested do not constitute a high pay formula because there are the same conditions that most people prefer. These include physical safety, little financial risk, no exposure

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to inclement weather, pleasant working conditions, short commutes and no midnight to 8am shifts.

Ficsher et al., (2006) found that gender had the strongest significant influence on specialty choice, followed by career motivation, personality traits and life goals.

Pande (2006) opined that many parents still see girls' education as leading her to be better mother and wife and lay emphasis on traditional education.

Anand and Bhanton (2007) revealed that socio-personal and economic factors are directly related to social maturity of adolescent girls of both rural and urban areas but major socio-personal and economic parameters like mother's education, father's occupation as well as upper caste in rural area, father's and mother's occupation plays an important role towards development of social maturity of adolescent girls.

Gupta (2007) found that the girls who came from moderately stereotyped family climate and had mother's with high educational level, were found to have high levels of leadership, fearlessness, attitude towards opposite sex, happiness in school and interest in technical work but the influence of the education of mother was significant on the level of vocational interests of girls.

Kaur (2007) established that the parental attitude towards girls' education and employment has a favourable effect on the family values of female college students. The parental attitude towards girls' education and employment has no impact on career and family values of female Arts and Science students.

Kaur (2007) concluded that the female college students with educated mothers have significantly higher level of family values than those with literate or illiterate mothers. However maternal educational status does not affect career values. Also female students with non-working mothers have high career orientation than those with working mothers. However, the working status of the mother does not affect the family values.

Poonam (2007) found that family income plays a vital role in career choice process of secondary school students. She added that boys have greater career choice in the field of science and technology as compared to girls.

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Subramanian (2007) inferred that a majority of the women scientists come from socio-economically and culturally privileged middle class families, which placed a high value on their daughters' education and encouraged their career ambitions. These women had a consistently good academic record. The decision to pursue a career in science was central to them and they made their choices keeping this in focus.

In nutshell, above studies revealed that the internal psychological barriers and situational factors related to the women's prescribed sex role may in part be responsible for low participation of women in high prestigious professions. Also women lowered their career goals to avoid future work conflict and to experience fewer family life demands. Stereotyping is believed to have an effect on career preferences of females. (O'Leary, 1974; Gaffari, 1979; Kolbenschlag, 1979; Arnold, 1993; Farmer and Wough, 1999; Bryant, 2003; Carlson et al., 2004; Luzzo, 1996; Pazy et al. 1996; Kumar, 2001; Nepper, 2003; Preeti, 2003; Fischer, 2006; Farell, 2005).

Another fact found from the above studies is that parental education and family income influence career orientation of female students (Pulkkinen et al., 1997; Lata and Chikara, 1995; Luzzo, 1996; Kumari, 1996; Chanchlor and Sansanwal, 1998; Saluja, 2000; Purang and Sharma, 2000; Seginer, 2002; Kalra and Pyari, 2004; Pande, 2006; Gupta, 2007; Subramanian, 2007; Poonam, 2007; Kaur, 2007).

On the basis of above studies, it can be said that women in rural areas tend to marry and are less likely to attend college than urban women but their educational decisions are influenced by a common set of factors such as parental influence, marriage and family plans, and cultural expectations. On the other hand we can see in some studies that women with non-traditional sex-role do not differ in their career salience as compared to those with traditional sex-role attitude. However, in some cases women's commitment to a career choice was influenced more by their instrumentality and less by their expressiveness or their parents.

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2.5 OVERVIEW

The perusal of review of related literature provides a picture reflecting on career orientation, self-esteem, achievement motivation, locus of control, parental attitude towards education and employment of girls, levels of intelligence, parental education, parental employment, parental income and parental social status among female college and university students. The review of related literature pertaining to socio-psychological variables, under investigation provides certain indications that may be briefly summed up as under:

1. The role of men and women over centuries has undergone a little or no change, except in an increase in the responsibility of the women. So, it reveals that female oppression continues from womb to tomb (Sahay, 1998; Misra and Aggarwal, 1998; Fassinger, 2001; Farooquee and Rawat, 2001; Sen, 2001; Tiwari, 2004; Mukhopadhayay, 2004; Bal, 2004; Tyagi, 2004; Bamji, 2005; Chris and Pam, 2006; Pande, 2006; Lakshmanasamy, 2006; Subramanian, 2007; Iyer, 2007; Bandhopadhyay, 2007; Schmitt, 2008).
2. Women's education has held to usher in changes in conjugal role performance, decision making and behaviour patterns (Kantamma, 1990; Nehvi and Lidhoo, 1994; Spencer et al., 2000; Bhargava and Hiramath, 2005).
3. Females appeared to value the parental role greater than males (Good and Mint, 1990; Bryant, 2003; Rachel, 2004; Gupta and Shukla, 2006; Wizarat and Arya, 2007; Appachu, 2007).
4. Indians are not so broad minded to accept employed girls and that sex discrimination in employment in developed countries is still prevalent and under study (Gowan, 1998; Battle and Wigfield, 2003; Luzzo and McWhister, 2001; Godbole, 2002; Banerjee, 2003; Elkins, 2002; Schultz, 2004; Farell, 2005; Anitha, 2006; Hazarika, 2007; Rai, 2007; Beaton et al., 2007).
5. Employment of women accelerated process of change and helped to check male dominance and this has paved the way

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for egalitarian conjugal relationships (Indira, 1987; Munson et al., 2000; Arya, 2000; Fan and Marini, 2000).

6. Women remained at the same occupational level over time, in spite of the opportunity (Rosenfield, 1976; Kumar, 2001; Hultin, 2003; Nikhat, 2004).
7. Working women has missed their role in life for there is nothing more sacred and respected than to be mother and a good wife (Mukhopadhyay, 1998; Nathawat and Mathur 1999; Gore, 2000; Jain and Gunthey, 2001; Battle and Wigfield, 2001; Mathur and Bahrti, 2001; Aujla, 2002; Griffin et al., 2002; Kaur et al., 2003; Bharat, 2003; Kaur et al., 2003; Mc Rae, 2003; Linville, 2003; Chodankar, 2004; Garbrecht, 2004; Singh 2005; Harshpinder and Aujla, 2006; Hymowitz, 2007; Iyer, 2006; Patra and Suar, 2007).
8. Working women have significantly higher martial satisfaction and are more modern in their out look (Kelley, 1992; Rani and Yadav, 2000; Aminabhav and Kulkarni, 2000; Panchal, 2002; Hundal, 2002; Kumthekar, 2004; Naieema, 2007; Kundu and Rani, 2007).
9. Mother's employment has no ill effect on child rearing and working women have created a satisfactory balance between their professional and family lives and hence working mother is not a threat to her family and children (Nath and Samal, 1995; Kaur, 1996; Sunita et al., 1999; Galinsky, 1999; Crouter et al., 1999; Manimeklai, 2002; Botsari and Makari, 2003; Wilson, 2005; Weer et al., 2006; Singh et al., 2007).
10. It is only women who are expected to adjust. Married women with children had more problems in coping up with their work and family lives (Chikodikar, 1992; Marlow, 1993; Muller, 1995; Pazy et al., 1996; Dixit, 1998; Lincoln, 2000; Olrate, 2000; Rani and Yadav, 2000; Anand, 2001; Mc Elory, 2005; Nakahara, 2006).
11. Self-esteem is a strong correlate of subjective well being (SWB) and a woman with substantial income and a satisfying marriage is very likely to be satisfied with her life. Also self-esteem of woman is positively related with career orientation

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(Konek et al., 1994; Bajaj, 1995; Kaur, 1996; Koch, 1998; Brown, 2000; Dixon, 2000; Panda, 2000; Pulkkinen, 2002; Baumesister et al., 2003; Valentine et al., 2004; Singh, 2006; Pulkkinen et al., 2006; Ojha, 1996; Kaur, 2007).

12. Current gender socialization practices tend to undervalue women's achievement (Rao and Rao, 1988; Longwe, 1990; Gopalan, 1995; Dhalke, 1992; Diener and Fujita, 1995; Suvarna and Thomas, 1995; Fassinger, 2002; Gomez, 2006).
13. The women who prefer career outside the home often defines sex role by a self-orientation while non-career oriented women seems to view themselves from the more traditional sex role perspective. Women, who pursued 'high level' careers and continued greater occupational aspirations, appeared to value high quality career roles over family roles (Johnson, 1995; Singh, 2001; O'Brien, 2002; Fassinger, 2002; Behnke et al., 2004; Singh and Neeta, 2006; Mary Blair Loy, 2004; Fernandez et al., 2006; Huang, 2006).
14. On the other hand it is also reported that females held higher expectations for having a family rather than a career (Reyes et al., 1999; Mukhopadhyay, 2001; Rachel, 2004; Fassinger, 2004; Man Yee Kan, 2005; Haley, 2006).
15. The psychological barriers and situational factors related to the women's prescribed sex role may, in part, be responsible for low participation of women in high prestigious professions. Also women lowered their career goals to avoid future work conflict and to expect fewer family life demands. Stereotyping is believed to have an effect on career preferences of females (Pazy et al., 1986; Arnold, 1993; Luzzo, 1996; Kumar, 2001; Bryant, 2003; Nepper, 2003; Preeti, 2003; Carlson et al., 2004; Fischer, 2006; Farell, 2005).
16. Parental education, employment and family income influence career orientation of female students (Pulkkinen et al., 1997; Chikara and Lata, 1995; Luzzo, 1996; Kumari 1996; Chanchlor and Sansanwal, 1998; Saluja, 2000; Purang and Sharma, 2000; Seginer, 2002; Pande, 2006; Gupta, 2007; Subramanian, 2007; Poonam, 2007; Kaur, 2007).

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2.6 FORMULATION OF HYPOTHESES

From the perusal of these studies concluded above the investigator formulated the following research hypotheses

2.7 HYPOTHESES

1. There will be significant difference among female college and university students of urban areas of Jammu region in their career orientation with respect to the following psychological variables:-
   (i) High and low levels of self-esteem
   (ii) High and low levels of achievement motivation
   (iii) External and internal locus of control
   (iv) Favourable and unfavourable attitude towards girl's education and employment
   (v) High and low levels of intelligence
2. There will be significant difference among female college and university students of urban areas of Jammu region in their career orientation with respect to the following socio-economic variables:-
   (i) High and low levels of parental education
   (ii) High and low levels of parental employment
   (iii) High and low levels of parental income
   (iv) High and low levels of parental social status
3. There will be significant difference among female college and university students of rural areas of Jammu region in their career orientation with respect to the following psychological variables:-
   (i) High and low levels of self-esteem
   (ii) High and low levels of achievement motivation
   (iii) External and internal locus of control
   (iv) Favourable and unfavourable attitude towards girl's education and employment
   (v) High and low levels of intelligence
4. There will be significant difference among female college and university students of rural areas of Jammu region in their career orientation with respect to the following socio-economic variables:-

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(i) High and low levels of parental education
(ii) High and low levels of parental employment
(iii) High and low levels of parental income
(iv) High and low levels of parental social status

5. There will be significant difference among female college and university students of urban and rural areas of Jammu region in their career orientation with respect to the following psychological variables:-
   (i) High and low levels of self-esteem
   (ii) High and low levels of achievement motivation
   (iii) External and internal locus of control
   (iv) Favourable and unfavourable attitude towards girl's education and employment
   (v) High and low levels of intelligence
6. There will be significant difference among female college and university students of urban and rural areas of Jammu region in their career orientation with respect to the following socio-economic variables:-
   (i) High and low levels of parental education
   (ii) High and low levels of parental employment
   (iii) High and low levels of parental income
   (iv) High and low levels of parental social status
7. There will be significant interactive effect of psychological variables of self-esteem, achievement motivation, locus of control, parental attitude and intelligence on career orientation of female students.
8. There will be significant interactive effect of socio-economic variables of parental education, parental employment, parental income and parental social status on career orientation of female students.
9. There will be significant interactive effect of psychological variables (self-esteem, achievement motivation, locus of control, parental attitude and intelligence) with socio-economic variables (parental education, parental employment, parental income and parental social status) on career orientation of female students.

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CHAPTER III
METHODOLOGY

This chapter pertains to the discussion of the procedure which was used by the investigator for the conduct of the study. It includes necessary details about the procedure of the sampling in selecting the students from various groups and the tools used for collecting necessary data along with the design of the study.

3.1 TOOLS USED

The success of any research endeavour is largely dependent upon the tools which are used for data collection. In the present study the following tools were selected and used by the investigator:

1. Career and Family Value Scale by Tanwar and Singh (1988)
2. Battle's Self Esteem Inventory (Indian Adaptation) by Anand Kumar (1979)
3. Rotter's Locus of Control Scale by Kumar and Srivastava (1966)
4. Achievement Motive Test by Bhargava (1994)
5. Standard Progressive Matrices by Raven (1938)
6. Background Information Schedule constructed by the investigator herself.
7. Student's Perception Scale developed by the investigator herself.

The relevant details about the tools are presented as under:

3.1.1 Career and Family Value Scale

Career and Family Scale developed by Tanwar and Singh, (1988) was used to measure the career orientation of female college and university students. This scale aims at assessing career and family values among the college and university females

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and it also captures the meaning what educated women attach to their work and family life in the modern society in which they are supposed to play dual role of a careerist as well as housewife simultaneously.

The scale consists of 40 items, 20 each on career values and family values. These items are to be scored by giving a score ranging from 5 to 1 on the continuum of agreeableness to disagreeableness (strongly agree to strongly disagree) through neutral in case of career values and vice versa in case of family values to generate the career orientation score.

The test-retest and split half reliability coefficients are 0.86 and 0.95 for career values and 0.84 and 0.96 for family values respectively. The validity of the career and family value scale for college females was worked out using contrasted group method taken as external criterion. The mean career value score of the educated housewives and educated working women came out to be 70.70 and 84.60 respectively and respective mean family values score came out to be 89.76 and 62.07. The significant mean differences between the two contrasted groups: educated housewives having higher family values and working women having higher career values is suggestive of the fact that the career and family value scale is valid in terms of being capable of distinguishing careerist women in a significant manner from the house wives in their career and family values.

3.1.2 Battle's Self-Esteem Inventory

This inventory has immediate relevance in understanding the self-esteem. It measures the perception the individual possesses of his own worth. Perception of self worth, once established, tends to be fairly stable and resistant to change. The shortness and the simplicity of the inventory make it very practical.

Self-Esteem Inventory for Children (SEIC) has been developed by Battle (1972, 1976, 1979) involving students and clients. Self-esteem inventory contains 50 items. The items in the scale are divided into two groups: those which indicate high

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self-esteem, and those which indicate low self-esteem. The individual checks item either "Yes" or "No". The self-esteem score is the total number of items checked which indicates the magnitude of self-esteem. The maximum self-esteem score can be 50 and the minimum score is 0.

The inventory was standardized on boys and girls in grades III to IX but has been used successfully to assess the self-esteem of high school, college and university students as well. The maximum time allotted to the test is 15-20 minutes.

The split half reliability coefficient of the inventory is 0.92 for male and 0.93 for female. The test-retest reliability is 0.90 for male and 0.92 for female respectively. The 50 items in the inventory are the most discriminative ones and the factor analysis described by Battle (1977) indicates that the items in the scale possess acceptable internal consistency.

3.1.3 Rotter's Locus of Control Scale

Rotter's Locus of Control Scale was for first time developed by Rotter in 1966. It is used in understanding the nature of client's dysfunction. The scale may be successfully used by psychiatrists, psychologists, counsellors, teachers and social workers as a screening device to identify individuals who may be in need of psychological assistance.

Internal-external scale provides useful means for measuring individual differences in the extent to which reinforcement is viewed as consequences of ones own behaviour or as consequences of such forces as chance or fate.

Since its introduction the concept of internal and external locus of control has proved to be highly useful personality dimensions for understanding the role of reinforcement in a wide varied of behavioural situations. The concept of locus of control, as derived from social learning theory (Rotter, 1966), provides a useful means for measuring individual differences in the extent to which reinforcement is viewed as consequence of one's own behaviour or a consequence of such forces as 'Chance', 'Fate', or 'Power'.

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This scale is a forced choice instrument, which consists of 29 pairs of statements, 23 of which are scored, there are 6 filler items (Item No.1,8,14,19,24,27) which are not scored. The maximum score for the test is 23 and the minimum score is zero.

The Rotters Locus of Control scale is highly reliable both in split half and test-retest methods. The calculated index of reliability for split half is 0.88 and for test-retest method is 0.85. Rotter (1966) reported good discrimination validity for the scale indicated by low correlation with such variables as intelligence, social desirability and political affiliation. High score indicates external locus of control on internal external dimension of the scale. In scoring, only external alternatives are endorsed.

Internal control refers to the perception of positive and / or negative events as being a consequence of one's actions and thereby under personal control. Internally controlled person feels that reinforcement which he receives occur primarily because of his own purposeful behaviour. Internally oriented people should be more active in their attempts to master and change their environment and should also be more interested in doing so if the environment does not seem responsive to their needs.

External control refers to the perception of positive and / or negative events as being unrelated to one's own behaviours in certain situations and therefore, beyond personal control. Externally controlled person believes that reinforcements are under the control of power, luck, chance, fate etc. Externally controlled person believes that their life is ruled by factors beyond their control. Since an external controlled person feels that factors beyond his control determine what happens to him, he is more easily influenced by others than internally controlled persons. Externally oriented people should be more fatalistic.

3.1.4 Achievement Motive Test

The Achievement Motive test has been developed by Bhargava (1994). It is intended to measure the N-Achievement (N-Ach) score of the person. This test consists of 50 items of incomplete sentences / items which were to be completed by the

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students by putting a tick (✓) on any of the three alternative responses given against each item.

In the construction of the test, items were collected from various sources. These items were pooled and the selection of items was made according to the respective merit of the items. The similar procedure was followed by fixing alternative response procedures which have similar competitive attraction value. The test consists of 50 items. Each item has three responses. Out of these three responses one response is to be selected. The maximum score can be 50 and minimum zero. The test-retest reliability of the test has been reported as 0.87 and by comparing the responses on similar items it was found as 0.79. For validation indices, the test was tried for having the agreement with the criterion test of N-Ach, and with educational achievement in various faculties. It was found that the test scores on this test and the test-scores for SCT of Mukherji had an agreement of 0.80 for N-Ach and 0.75 for educational achievement.

3.1.5 Standard Progressive Matrices

Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices Set (A, B, C, D and E) first published in 1938 assesses persons capacity at the time of test to apprehend meaningless figures presented for his observation; to see the relations between them; conceive the nature of figures completing each system of relations presented; and by doing so developing a systematic method of reasoning. It is a non-verbal test which consists of 60 problems divided into five sets of 12 each. The five sets provide equal number of opportunities for grasping the method, and five progressive assessments of the person's capacity for intellectual activity. Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices is widely used with persons at all ages, whatever their education, nationality or physical condition may be. A person's total score provides an index of his intellectual capacity, with relatively little influence from the cultural environment in which the individual grew up.

Moreover, majority of the studies have reported the split half reliability coefficient of at least 0.90, with a mode of 0.91.

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The SPM is found to be related with the Binet and Wechsler Scale, the coefficients of correlation ranging between 0.54 and 0.86. When the scores on SPM are compared with actual school achievement, assessed by school grades examination results or teacher estimates, correlations generally fall between 0.20 and 0.60. Cultural studies have also confirmed the progressive matrices as one of the best measures of 'g' or general intellectual functioning.

3.1.6 Background Information Schedule

The Background Information Schedule was constructed by the investigator herself to seek the information of the female college and university students on the following social variables:

A) Parental Education (paternal and maternal): Illiterate / middle standard / secondary level / graduate level / post graduate level / professional degree / any other research degree.

B) Parental Employment (paternal and maternal): Unemployed / agriculture / private employee / government service / professionals / business / any other highly paid job.

C) Parental Income (paternal and maternal): Below 3000 / 3001-6000 / 6001-9000 / 9001-12000 / 12001-15000 / 15001-18000 / above 18000.

D) Parental Social Status depicting the social status of the parents which includes type of house, area of land, number of cattle, and the material items possessed by the families of the female students.

3.1.7 Students' Perception Scale

Students' Perception Scale was prepared by investigator herself to seek students' perception of parental attitude towards education and employment of girls. For seeking this information a preliminary draft comprising of 41 items was prepared by the researcher. The items were drafted to elicit students' perceived behaviour about their parental attitude on the issues of child-

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rearing, their education, life style, future orientation and safety of girl child in school / women at work place.

A five point Likert type response scale (ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree through neutral) was employed for scoring. The scores of female students were expected to range from 41 to 205.

Try-out of Preliminary Draft

The preliminary draft of Student Perception Scale was administered on a random sample of 150 female college and university students drawn from all the districts of Jammu Province.

After scoring all the response sheets, the scores of female college and university students ranged between 97 to 196. The response sheets were arranged in the decreasing order with the top scorer at the top and the low scorer at the bottom. Then the response sheets of upper 27% (N=40) and below 27% (N=40) were selected to form criterion groups. According to Edwards (1957) these two groups provide criterion groups in terms of which to evaluate the individual statements. Using these two extreme groups the t-values were computed for each statement. The value of 't' is a measure of the extent to which a given statement differentiates between high and low groups. The item wise means and standard deviations for high and low scoring groups were computed separately.

For selecting the items for the final draft it was decided to select those items whose t-value cameout to be 1.75 or more as suggested by Edward (1957). Using this criterion 28 items having t-value of 1.75 or more were selected where as 12 items were dropped out. From the list of 28 items having t-value 1.75 or more only 20 items were finally selected by retaining only those items having highest t-values so as to make the scale wieldy.

Reliability and Validity

Content validity of the scale was established by seeking expert opinion from teachers and scholars regarding content adequacy of each item in respect of parental attitude towards

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various aspects of education and employment of girls. On the basis of their expert opinion, some of the items in the preliminary draft were modified so as to convey objective information on the issues of education and employment of girls.

In order to test reliability of the scale, it was administered on a random drawn sample of 75 college and university female students which was different from the sample used in the item analysis. The split-half method was used to estimate the reliability of the scale. The scale was split into two halves (odd and even). The correlation between the scores of the two halves came out to be 0.71. From the reliability of half-test, the reliability of whole test was estimated by using the following Spearman Brown Prophecy formula:

$$r_{tt} = 2r_{hh} / 1+r_{hh}$$
$$= 2 \times 0.71 / 1+0.71 = 0.83$$

where r_{tt} is the reliability coefficient of the whole test and r_{hh} is reliability coefficient of half-test. The magnitude of reliability coefficient indicates that the test is reliable.

The possible range of scores on the scale is 20 to 100. The higher score shows favourable parental attitude and the low score shows unfavourable parental attitude towards education and employment of girls.

3.2 SAMPLING

Sampling is the essential feature in any research endeavour. Since, it is not possible to cover the whole population especially in descriptive studies; the researcher is to resort to sampling. The universe of the present study comprised of all the degree colleges affiliated to the University of Jammu and, all the teaching departments under various faculties of the University of Jammu. At the time of data collection there were 32 degree colleges in Jammu Province affiliated to University of Jammu and 29 teaching departments in the University of Jammu. The total number of girls studying in these colleges was 18699 where as the total number of girls in the teaching departments of the University was 3724. It was decided to use Probability Proportion

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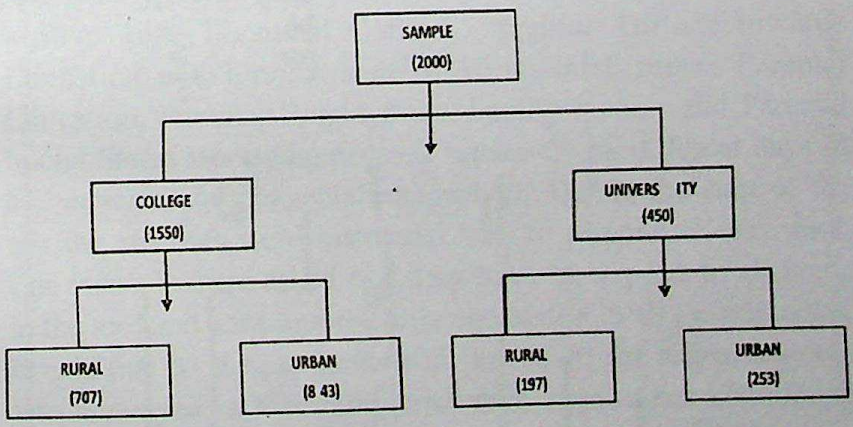
to Size (PPS) technique for selection of sample groups. On the basis of PPS the number of girls from the colleges came out to be 1550 and that from the University came out to be about 450. After that the total number of the girls in each college and teaching department of the University of Jammu was found out and on the basis of the total strength of girls in the colleges and university due weithage was given to number of girls to be selected from colleges and university. It was decided that the colleges having the enrolment of girls less than 100 will not be included in the study and in case of university the teaching departments having the number of girls less than 10 were not included in the study. The data in respect of various variables were collected from the randomly selected Hindi knowing female students of selected colleges and teaching departments of the university as per the requirement of PPS.

The overall picture of sample in terms of female college and university students belonging to rural and urban areas of Jammu region is presented as under:



The location of the institutions from which the data are collected is illustrated in the map given in Figure 3.1

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Figure 3.1

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It is evident from the map that the places from which the institutions have been selected are fairly scattered all over the Jammu region.

3.3 ADMINISTRATION OF TOOLS

In order to collect the data for the present study the investigator personally visited various colleges located in different districts of Jammu province and various teaching departments of University of Jammu as mentioned in Table 3.4 and Table 3.5. After seeking the permission from the principals of concerned colleges and head of the departments of various teaching departments, the investigator collected the names and roll numbers of all the female students class wise and selected the required number of students from each class by using simple random method. The number of students selected from each college is given in Table 3.4 and that from teaching department of university is given in Table 3.5. The selected students were requested to assemble in a separate room and different tests namely; the Career and Family Value Scale, Self-Esteem Inventory, Achievement Motive Test, Locus of Control, Parental Attitude towards Education and Employment of Girls, Intelligence, Parental Education, Parental Employment, Family Income and Parental Social Status were administered separately on different days in a conducive and congenial atmosphere. Before the start of the test the students were instructed how to respond to each tool. The students were asked that they have to respond to all items in the tool and have to mark only one option in all the questions. In addition to it time limits and procedure for answering was also conveyed to them and strictly followed. After completing the task the tools were collected and students were thanked for their cooperation. The same procedure was adopted for all other tools.

In case of data collection from various PG Departments of University of Jammu almost the similar procedure was followed to collect the data.

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3.4 SCORING OF TOOLS

3.4.1 Career and Family Value Scale

The Career and Family Value Scale used in this investigation consists of 40 items, 20 each on career values and family values. In case of career values the items are to be scored positively by giving a score ranging from 5 to 1 correspondingly showing their degree of agreeableness and disagreeableness (strongly agree to strongly disagree) through neutral. The procedure adopted for scoring family values was reverse of the procedure adopted for scoring in case of career values i.e., from 1 to 5 showing their degree of agreeableness to disagreeableness (from strongly agree to strongly disagree) through neutral to generate the career orientation score. The distribution of the items in the scale is given in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6

Distribution of Career and Family Values in Scale

Value Pattern	S. No. of items in scale	Total
Career Values	2,3,5,8,9,11,12,14,17,19,20,22,25, 27,28,31,33,34,37,38	20
Family Values	1,4,6,7,10,13,15,16,18,21,23,24,26, 29,30,32,35,36,39,40	20

The range of scores varies from 40-200, the higher score showing an indication of high level of career orientation and vice-versa.

3.4.2 Self-Esteem Inventory

The Self-Esteem Inventory consists of 50 items. The items in the scale are divided into two groups: those which indicate high self-esteem, and those which indicate low self-esteem. The individual checks item either "Yes" or "No". In case of items 1, 3, 6, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12, 13, 18, 19, 22, 23, 24, 26, 27, 28, 30, 32, 34, 35, 39, 43, 45, 47, 48, 49, 50 'No' response was given as one mark and in case of items 2, 4, 5, 10, 14, 15, 16, 17, 20, 21, 25, 29, 31, 33, 36, 37, 38, 40, 41, 42, 44, 46 the response of 'Yes' was given one mark to yield self-esteem scores. The maximum

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score is 50 and the minimum is 0. The high score indicates high self-esteem and the low score indicates low self-esteem.

3.4.3 Rotter's Locus of Control

The Rotter's Locus of Control Scale consists of 29 pairs, of statements, 23 of which are scored. There are 6 filler items (item No. 1, 8, 14, 19, 24, and 27) which are not scored. Each item has two statements 'a' and 'b' in case of items 2, 6, 7, 9, 16, 17, 18, 20, 21, 23, 25, 29 statement 'a' is given one score and in case of items 3, 4, 5, 10, 11, 12, 13, 15, 22, 26, 28 statement 'b' is given one score. High score indicates internal locus of control on internal-external dimension of the scale. The maximum possible score on Rotter's Locus of Control is 23 and minimum being 0.

3.4.4 Achievement Motive Test

The Achievement Motive Test was scored with the help of scoring key. The scores, ranged from 0 to 50. As there were 50 items in the test and every item had three choices. Each item indicating achievement motivation (N-Ach) is given a score of 1 and the total score earned on all the items is the (N-Ach) score. The high score indicates high achievement motivation and the low score indicates low achievement motivation. The maximum possible score is 50 and the minimum is 0.

3.4.5 Standard Progressive Matrices Test

The Standard Progressive Matrices Test contains 5 sets (A, B, C, D and E) and each set has 12 items. Each item has in turn 5 options out of which only one option is correct. The author has developed a scoring key to know the correct answer in the questionnaire. One mark is given to correct answer and zero mark is given to the incorrect answer. The maximum score for each set is 12 and the minimum score is 0. The total score is 60 for all the sets A, B, C, D and E.

3.4.6 Background Information Schedule

Background Information schedule was administered to collect the information on parental education, parental employment, parental income and parental social status. The scoring procedure for all these components is discussed as under:

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A) Parental Education: All the subjects were scored on seven point continuum for parental education. The score given to each category is in increasing order i.e., illiterate (0), middle standard (1), secondary level (2), graduate level (3), post graduate level (4), professional degree (5), any research degree (6), both in case of father and mother. The high scores indicate highly educated parents and low scores indicate low educated parents.

B) Parental Employment: Parental employment was scored on 7 point continuum starting from unemployed to highly paid jobs and scores given to each category ranges from 0 to 6 i.e., unemployed (0), agriculture (1), private employee (2), government service (3), professional (4), business (5), any other higher paid job (6). The range of scores being 0-6. The high score indicates lucrative jobs where as low score indicates low paid employment for both the parents separately.

C) Parental Income: Parental Income of female students were also scored on seven point continuum i.e., the income range was restricted from income less than Rs3000/- to income more than Rs18000/- per month and the scores were awarded form 0 to 6 for various ranges i.e. below 3000 (0), 3001-6000 (1), 6001-9000 (2), 9001-12000 (3), 12001-15000 (4), 15001-18000 (5), above 18000 (6). The higher score indicates high income group and low scores indicate low income group.

D) Parental Social Status: Parental Social Status was developed on the components of family background, material position and certain psychological indicators of the students. Scoring was done as per the scoring key developed by the investigator

3.4.7 Students Perception Scale

The Students Perception Scale was scored on five point scale to find students perception about parental attitude towards the education and the employment of girls. In case of positive statements the score ranging from 5 to 1 correspondingly showing their degree of agreeableness and disagreeableness (strongly agree to strongly disagree) through neutral and in case of negative

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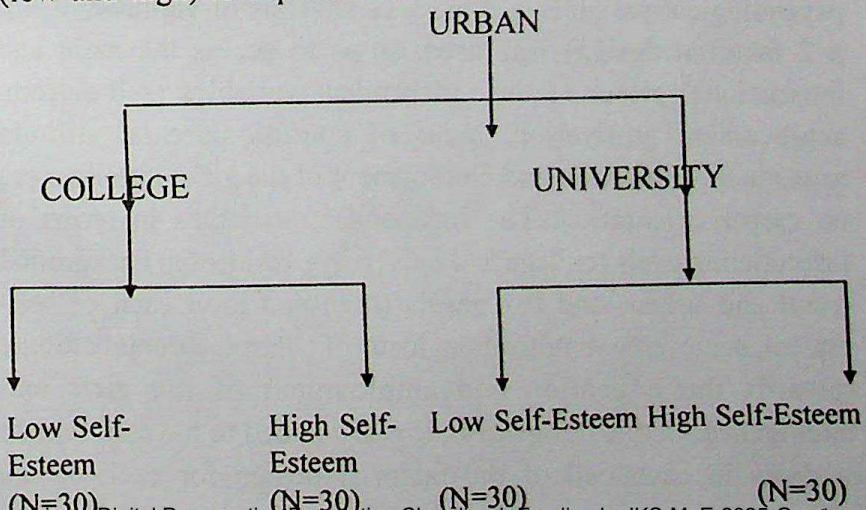
items the scoring was done in the reverse order i.e. from 1 to 5 in case of strongly agree to strongly disagree. In the scale the items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 13, 15, 16, 18, 19 are negative items whereas the items 6, 12, 14, 17 and 20 are positive items. The scale has total 20 items. The maximum score can be 100 and minimum is zero.

3.5 STATISTICAL TREATMENT OF THE DATA

One of the main objectives of the present study was to study the career orientation (dependent variable) of urban female college and university students in relation to the psychological variables of self-esteem, achievement motivation, locus of control, parental attitude towards the education and employment of the girls and intelligence (independent variable). For this 2 x 2 factorial design of analysis of variance was used. The independent variable in terms of institution levels (college and university) and two levels each of self-esteem, achievement motivation, locus of control, parental attitude towards the education and employment of the girls and intelligence. Further, it was decided to have 30 students in each cell of the factorial design for each of the analyses. Thus the total number of female college and university students included in the design was 120. As an illustration the factorial design of 2 x 2 involving two types of institutions (college and university) and two levels of self-esteem (low and high) is depicted as under:



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Similarly, 2 x 2 factorial design was used to study the career orientation of urban female college and university students in relation to socio-economic variables of parental education, parental employment, parental income and parental social status.

To study the career orientation (dependent variable) of rural female college and university students in relation to psychological variables of self-esteem, achievement motivation, locus of control, parental attitude towards the education and employment of the girls and intelligence and socio-economic variables of parental education, parental employment, parental income and parental social status (all independent variables) 2 x 2 factorial design was similarly used as in case of urban female college and university students.

The present study also aimed to compare the career orientation of rural and urban female college and university students in terms of the psychological variables like self-esteem, achievement motivation, locus of control, parental attitude towards the education and employment of the girls, intelligence and the socio-economic variables like parental education, parental employment, parental income and parental social status.

In order to study the effect of residential background of the female college and university students in relation to psychological variables a three way analysis of variance (2 x 2 x 2 factorial design) was used, so as to access the main and interactional effect of the independent variables (self-esteem, achievement motivation, locus of control, parental attitude towards the education and employment of the girls, intelligence) on career orientation. The independent variables in terms of institutional levels (college and university), residential background (rural and urban) and two levels (high and low) each of self-esteem, achievement motivation, locus of control, parental attitude towards the education and employment of the girls and intelligence. In this design also, it was decided to have 30 female students in each cell of the factorial design for each of the

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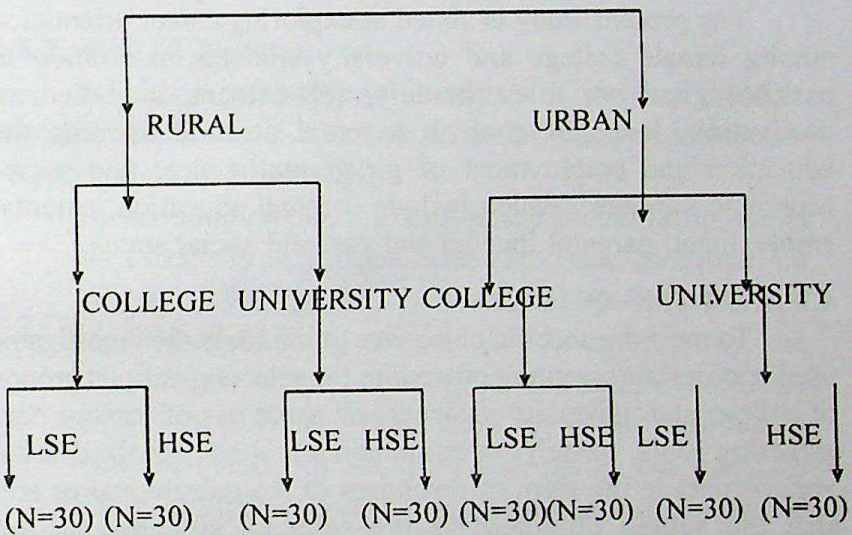
analyses. The total number of female college and university students included in the design was 240. As an illustration the factorial design of 2 x 2 x 2 involving institution levels (college and university), residential background (rural and urban) and two levels of self-esteem (low and high) is depicted as under:



where LSE and HSE are low self-esteem and high self esteem respectively.

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CHAPTER IV
ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

The present study is aimed at exploring career orientation among female college and university students in relation to psychological variables, namely, self-esteem, achievement motivation, locus of control, parental attitude towards the education and employment of girls, intelligence; and socio-economic variables, which include parental education, parental employment, parental income and parental social status.

4.1 ANALYSIS OF DATA

To meet the specific objectives of the study the investigator used appropriate sampling procedure for selecting various groups of college and university students and made use of various data gathering tools, namely, questionnaires and standardized tests. Various data in the form of responses of the questionnaires and also the scores obtained by the selected students on the standardized tests were tabulated in various categories as discussed in Chapter III. These data were analyzed with the help of appropriate statistical techniques as discussed as under:

4.2 ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

The technique of analysis of variance was used to compare the career orientation among female college and university students belonging to rural and urban areas of Jammu region using (2X2) and (2X2X2) factorial design. However, before the application of analysis of variance, the data were tested for various assumptions on which ANOVA is based.

4.2.1 Assumptions Underlying Analysis of Variance:

Johans (1961) presents certain assumptions which should be fulfilled in the use of analysis of variance. The assumptions are:

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(i) The population distribution should be normal.

(ii) All groups of certain criterion or of the combination of more than one criterion should be randomly chosen for the sub population having the same criterion or having the combination of more than one criterion.

(iii) The sub-groups under study should have the same variability.

4.2.2 Testing of Assumptions

Before the application of analysis of variance the data were tested for the basic assumptions underlying this technique:

(i) Assumption of Normality

The assumption that the distribution should be normal is not especially important. Eden and Yates, as quoted by Johnson (1961, pp 218-219) showed that even with a population departing considerably from normality, the effectiveness of the normality is still held. Besides the findings of Eden and Yates, the study of Norton cited by Guliford (1965, pp 300-301) also points out that F is rather insensitive to variations in the shape of population distribution. In view of this, in the present case, it was not considered necessary to test the data for normality.

(ii) Assumption of Randomness

The requirement of the randomness were amply fulfilled in this study at every stage wherever it was possible. eg. in case of career orientation among urban female college and university students in relation to self-esteem a sample of 120 students was randomly selected from the sample pool. These students were categorized in 4 groups of 30 each on the basis of their self-esteem and the level of their institution i.e. college and university.

(iii) Assumption of Homogeneity

The assumption of homogeneity was tested by applying Bartlett's test of 'Homogeneity of Variance'.

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4.3 CAREER ORIENTATION AMONG URBAN FEMALE COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY STUDENTS IN RELATION TO PSYCHOLOGICAL AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC VARIABLES.

4.3.1 Career Orientation among Urban Female College and University Students in Relation to Self-Esteem

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by urban female college and university students having high and low levels of self-esteem were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance in which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and level of institution (college and university) and self-esteem (low and high) are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 3.95 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are summarised in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL X SELF-ESTEEM

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Institutional Level (A)	1	329.99	329.99	0.59
Self-Esteem (B)	1	5056.98	5056.98	9.15**
AXB	1	16.92	16.92	0.03
Within	116	64059.43	552.23	
Total	119	69463.32		

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.1 shows that F-value for main effect of institutional level of female students of urban areas is 0.59 which is not significant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female college and university students of urban areas do not differ significantly in their career orientation.

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It may also be observed from Table 4.1 that F-value for the main effect of self-esteem is 9.15 which is significant at 0.01 level. This infers that female students belonging to urban areas with high and low self-esteem differ significantly in their career orientation. Those having high self-esteem have high career orientation (M=162.92) and those with low self-esteem have low career orientation (M = 149.93). It is worth mentioning that Kaur (2007) in her study found that college female students with high self-esteem are more career oriented as compared to their counterparts with low self-esteem.

The F-value for the interactive effects of institutional level x self-esteem is 0.03 which is not significant even at 0.05 level. These are indicative of the fact that joint effects of institutional level and self-esteem are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B (institutional levels and levels of self-esteem) is same and does not show difference in career orientation.

4.3.2 Career Orientation among Urban Female College and University Students in Relation to Achievement Motivation

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by urban female college and university students having high and low levels of achievement motivation were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and level of institution (college and university) and achievement motivation (low and high) are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 4.45 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are summarized in Table 4.2.

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Table 4.2

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL X ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Institutional Level (A)	1	48.10	48.10	1.12
Achievement Motivation (B)	1	1163.30	1163.30	27.30**
AXB	1	20.80	20.80	0.48
Within	116	4943.70	42.62	
Total	119	6175.90		

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.2 shows that the F-value for main effect of institutional level among female students of urban areas is 1.12 which is not significant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female college and university students of urban areas do not differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the main effect of the achievement motivation is 27.30 which is significant at 0.01 level. This infers that female students belonging to urban areas and having high and low levels of achievement motivation differ significantly in their career orientation. Those having high achievement motivation have high career orientation and those having low achievement motivation have low career orientation. This may be due to the fact that the female college and university students belonging to urban areas with high achievement motivation are well aware of the fact that career is going to play an important role in the life of an individual and these are highly motivated to pursue career while as those with low career orientation are least bothered about their career and hence less career oriented.

The F-value for the interactive effects of institutional level x achievement motivation is 0.48 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. These are indicative of the fact that joint effects of institutional level and achievement motivation are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female

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students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B (institutional level and levels of achievement motivation) is same and does not show difference in career orientation.

4.3.3 Career Orientation among Urban Female College and University Students in Relation to Locus of Control

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by urban female college and university students with internal and external locus of control were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance in which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and institutional level (college and university) and locus of control (internal and external) are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 4.97 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are summarized in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL X LOCUS OF CONTROL

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Institutional Level (A)	1	4.80	4.80	0.14
Locus of Control (B)	1	258.10	258.10	7.77**
AXB	1	270.00	270.00	8.13 **
Within	116	3850.50	33.19	
Total	119	4383.50		

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.3 shows that the F-value for main effect of institutional level among female students of urban areas is 0.14 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female college and university students of urban areas do not differ significantly in their career orientation.

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The F-value for the main effect of the locus of control is 7.77 which is significant at 0.01 level. This infers that female students of urban areas having internal and external locus of control differ significantly in their career orientation. Female students having external locus of control have low career orientation as compared to those female students having internal locus of control. The mean of female students having external locus of control is 143.6 and those with internal locus of control is 156.5. It is worth while to mention here that Spector (1982) found that individuals with an internal locus of control were best suited for professional or managerial jobs, where they were more likely to perform better, and were more satisfied. Further, he found that individuals with internal locus of control orientation appear more motivated, perform better on the job, express higher job satisfaction levels, and have lower attrition rates than with an external locus of control.

The F-value for the interactive effects of institutional level x locus of control is 8.13, which is significant at 0.01 level. These are indicative of the fact that joint effects of institutional level and locus of control are dependent on each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B (institutional levels and levels of locus of control) is not the same and shows significant differences in career orientation.

4.3.4 Career Orientation among Urban Female College and University Students in Relation to Parental Attitude

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by urban female college and university students having favourable and unfavourable parental attitude were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance in which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and level of institution (college and university) and parental attitude (favourable and unfavourable) are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 5.45 for 3 df at 0.05 level

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indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are summarized in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL X PARENTAL ATTITUDE

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Institutional Level (A)	1	188.80	188.80	3.38
Parental Attitude (B)	1	1128.50	1128.50	20.20**
AXB	1	1748.00	1748.00	31.20**
Within	116	6479.00	55.85	
Total	119	8944.3		

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.4 shows that the F-value for main effect of institutional level among female students of urban areas is 3.38 which is not significant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female college and university students of urban areas do not differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the main effect of the parental attitude is 20.20 which is significant at 0.01 level. This infers that female students of urban areas having unfavourable and favourable parental attitude differ significantly in their career orientation. The results of the study conducted by Subramanian (2007), Gupta (2007), Anand and Banot (2007) also indicates that favourable parental attitude enhances career orientation in female students where as unfavourable parental attitude decrease the career orientation among female students.

The F-value for the interactive effects of institutional level x parental attitude is 31.20 which is also significant at 0.01 level. These are indicative of the fact that joint effects of institutional level and parental attitude are dependent on each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words, the nature of differences under joint influence of

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different levels of A and B (institutional levels and levels of parental attitude) is not same and shows significant differences in career orientation.

4.3.5 Career Orientation among Urban Female College and University Students in Relation to Intelligence

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by urban female college and university students having high and low levels of intelligence were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and level of institution (college and university) and intelligence (low and high) are independent variables. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 5.95 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are summarized in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL X INTELLIGENCE

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Institutional Level (A)	1	0.50	0.50	0.01
Intelligence (B)	1	720.30	720.30	16.90 **
AXB	1	229.60	229.60	5.40*
Within	116	4933.40	42.50	
Total	119	5883.90		

*Significant at 0.05 level

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.5 shows that the F-value for main effect of institutional level among female students of urban areas is 0.01 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female college and university students of urban areas do not differ significantly in their career orientation.

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The F-value for the main effect of the intelligence is 16.90 which is significant at 0.01 level. This infers that female students of urban areas having low and high levels of intelligence differ significantly in their career orientation this is because highly intelligent people are able to adjust well in their occupations, they have also the capacity to adapt to new environment. Darwin has rightly said that only those can survive who are fit and intelligent persons are fit almost in every type of job in comparison to persons who are not intelligent. Persons with low intelligence can not adjust in every type of job and are misfit in the profession, thus their career orientation is also low.

The calculated F-value for the interactive effects of institutional level x intelligence is 5.40, which is although significant at 0.05 level but could not attain significance at 0.01 level. This indicates that effects of institutional level and intelligence are dependent on each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B (institutional levels and levels of intelligence) is not same and shows significant differences in career orientation.

4.3.6 Career Orientation among Urban Female College and University Students in Relation to Parental Education

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by urban female college and university students having high and low levels of parental education were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and level of institution (college and university) and parental education (low and high) are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 6.45 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are summarized in Table 4.6.

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Table 4.6

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL X PARENTAL EDUCATION

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Institutional Level (A)	1	58.80	58.80	0.96
Parental Education (B)	1	388.80	388.80	6.40*
AXB	1	580.80	580.80	9.50**
Within	116	7047.50	60.75	
Total	119	8075.90		

*Significant at 0.05 level
** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.6 shows that the F-value for main effect of institutional level among female students of urban areas is 0.96 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female college and university students of urban areas do not differ significantly across their career orientation.

The F-value for the main effect of the parental education is 6.40 which is significant at 0.05 level but insignificant at 0.01 level. This infers that female students of urban areas having higher parental education have high career orientation as compared to their counter parts having low parental education. The mean score of female students having high parental education is 154.16, while the mean score of those having low parental education is 152.73. This finding is supported by Mortimer et al. (1992) and DeRidder (1990), who found that lower levels of parental education retard career development or occupational aspirations where as higher levels of parental education support the career development and thus resulting in higher career orientation.

The calculated F-value for the interactive effects of institutional level x parental education is significant at 0.01 level. This indicates that joint effects of institutional level and parental education are dependent on each other in explaining career

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orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B (institutional level and levels of parental education) is not same and shows significant differences in career orientation.

4.3.7 Career Orientation among Urban Female College and University Students in Relation to Parental Employment

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by urban female college and university students having high and low levels of parental employment were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and level of institution (college and university) and parental employment (low and high) are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 6.90 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are summarized in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL X PARENTAL EMPLOYMENT

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Institutional Level (A)	1	124.00	124.00	1.91
Parental Employment (B)	1	1028.00	1028.00	15.91**
AXB	1	235.20	235.20	3.64
Within	116	7499.50	64.60	
Total	119	8886.7		

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.7 shows that the F-value for main effect of institutional level among female students of urban areas is 1.91 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that

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female college and university students do not differ significantly across their career orientation.

The F-value for the main effect of the parental education is 15.91 which is significant at 0.01 level. This infers that female students of urban areas having low and high parental employment differ significantly in their career orientation. It is worth while to mention here that Ries (1977) and Mohan (1989) found that employed women prefer a higher level of education for their daughters than achieved by them. They also found that the daughters of working parents are more career oriented than the daughters of the non working parents.

The F-value for the interactive effects of institutional level x parental employment is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that joint effects of institutional level and parental employment are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B (institutional levels and levels of parental employment) is same and does not shows differences in career orientation.

4.3.8 Career Orientation among Urban Female College and University Students in Relation to Parental Income

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by urban female college and university students having high and low levels of parental income were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and level of institution (college and university) and parental income (low and high) are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 7.12 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are summarized in Table 4.8.

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Table 4.8

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL X PARENTAL INCOME

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Institutional Level (A)	1	5.20	5.20	0.08
Parental Income (B)	1	1014.00	1014.00	16.41**
AXB	1	122.00	122.00	1.97
Within	116	7167.80	61.79	
Total	119	8309.00		

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.8 shows that the F-value for main effect of institutional level among female students of urban areas is 0.08 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female college and university students of urban areas do not differ significantly across their career orientation.

The F-value for the main effect of the parental income is 16.41 which is significant at 0.01 level. This infers that female students of urban areas having low and high levels of parental income differ significantly in their career orientation. It is worth while to mention here that that Duer (1992) supported the results. He found that family income is significantly associated with career orientation of children. He concluded that children in families with high income are more career oriented than those children belonging to low income group families.

The F-value for the interactive effects of institutional level x parental income is not significant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that joint effects of institutional level and parental income are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B (institutional levels and levels of parental income) is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

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4.3.9 Career Orientation among Urban Female College and University Students in Relation to Parental Social Status

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by urban female college and university students having high and low levels of parental social status were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance in which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and level of institution (college and university) and parental social status (low and high) are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 7.33 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are summarized in Table 4.9

Table 4.9

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL X PARENTAL SOCIAL STATUS

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Institutional Level (A)	1	93.60	93.60	2.18
Parental Social Status (B)	1	472.00	472.00	11.02**
AXB	1	276.00	276.00	6.44*
Within	116	4976.30	42.89	
Total	119	5817.90		

*Significant at 0.05 level

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.9 shows that the F-value for main effect of institutional level among female students of urban areas is 2.18 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female college and university students of urban areas do not differ significantly across their career orientation.

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The F-value for the main effect of the parental social status is 11.02 which is significant at 0.01 level. This infers that female students of urban areas having low and high parental social status differ significantly in their career orientation. The results are supported by Rao and Rao (1988) who found that social status of the parents and family income were significantly associated with career orientation of children. They also reported that parents with high social status have children with high career orientation where as parents with low social status have children with low career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of institutional level x parental social status is 6.44 which is although significant at 0.05 level but insignificant at 0.01 level. This indicates that joint effects of institutional level and parental social status are dependent on each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B (institutional levels and levels of parental social status) is not same and shows significant differences in career orientation.

From the analysis of variance of section 4.3 it is clear that female college and university students of urban areas do not differ significantly in their career orientation. The non significant difference in career orientation among urban female college and university students may be because the female college and university students of urban areas do not show much variation in their socio-economic levels. The urban female college and university students also have more or less similar facilities available at their homes. Moreover, majority of the students in these groups belong to general whose parental income in most of the families is above Rs 25000/- per month indicating same socio-economic level. The educational level of the parents of 70% of these students is upto graduate level. It may also be worthwhile to mention here that Brown and Brooks, (1990) pointed out that cultural and social aspects affect career choice. Since the cultural and social background of urban college and university students is more or less similar so they do not show variation in their career orientation.

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4.4 CAREER ORIENTATION AMONG RURAL FEMALE COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY STUDENTS IN RELATION TO PSYCHOLOGICAL AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC VARIABLES

4.4.1 Career Orientation among Rural Female College and University Students in Relation to Self-Esteem

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by rural female college and university students having high and low levels of self-esteem were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance in which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and level of institution (college and university) and self-esteem (low and high) are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 7.33 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are summarized in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL X SELF-ESTEEM

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Institutional Level (A)	1	228.74	228.74	4.20*
Self-Esteem (B)	1	748.00	748.00	13.76**
AXB	1	192.50	192.50	3.54
Within	116	6303.52	54.34	
Total	119	7472.74		

*Significant at 0.05 level

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.10 shows that the F-value for main

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effect of institutional level among female students of rural areas is 4.20 which is although significant at 0.05 level but could not attain significance at 0.01 level. This indicates that female college and university students of rural areas differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the main effect of the self-esteem is 13.76 which is significant at 0.01 level. This infers that female students of rural areas having low and high levels of self-esteem differ significantly in their career orientation. Female students with low self-esteem have low career orientation and with high self-esteem have high career orientation. It is worth mentioning that Kaur (2007) in her study found that college female students with high self-esteem are more career oriented as compared to their counterparts with low self-esteem.

The F-value for the interactive effects of institutional level x self-esteem is 3.54 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that joint effects of institutional level and self-esteem are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B (institutional levels and levels of self-esteem) is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

4.4.2 Career Orientation among Rural Female College and University Students in Relation to Achievement Motivation

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by rural female college and university students having high and low levels of achievement motivation were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance in which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and level of institution (college and university) and achievement motivation (low and high) are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 7.02 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are summarized in Table 4.11.

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Table 4.11

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL X ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Institutional Level (A)	1	100.80	100.80	1.35
Achievement Motivation (B)	1	1644.72	1644.72	22.13**
AXB	1	381.60	381.60	5.13*
Within	116	8617.92	74.29	
Total	119	10745.04		

*Significant at 0.05 level

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.11 shows that the F-value for main effect of institutional level among female students of rural areas is 1.35 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female college and university students of rural areas do not differ significantly across their career orientation.

The F-value for the main effect of the achievement motivation is 22.13 which is significant at 0.01 level. This infers that female students of rural areas having low and high levels of achievement motivation differ significantly in their career orientation. This may be due to the fact that the female students belonging to rural areas with high achievement motivation are well aware of the fact that career is going to play an important role in the life of individual and these are highly motivated to pursue career while as those with low career orientation are least bothered about their career and hence less career oriented.

The F-value for the interactive effects of institutional level x achievement motivation is 5.13 which is although significant at 0.05 level but could not attain significance at 0.01 level. This indicates that joint effects of institutional level and achievement motivation are dependent on each other in explaining career orienta-

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tion among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B (institutional levels and levels of achievement motivation) is not same and shows significant differences in career orientation.

4.4.3Career Orientation among Rural Female College and University Students in Relation to Locus of Control

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by rural female college and university students having internal and external locus of control were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance in which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and level of institution (college and university) and locus of control (internal and external) are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 6.75 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are summarized in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL X LOCUS OF CONTROL

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Institutional Level (A)	1	110.20	110.20	1.68
Locus of Control (B)	1	550.40	550.40	8.39**
AXB	1	156.40	156.40	2.38
Within	116	7602.60	65.53	
Total	119	8419.60		

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.12 shows that the F-value for main effect of institutional level among female students of rural areas is 1.68 which is not significant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female college and university students of rural areas do not differ

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significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the main effect of locus of control is 8.39 which is significant at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students of rural areas with internal and external locus of control differ significantly in their career orientation. Female students having external locus of control have lower career orientation as compared to those female students having internal locus of control. The mean of female students having external locus of control is 132.13 and those with internal locus of control is 141.56. It is worth while to mention here that Spector (1982) found that individuals with an internal locus of control were best suited for professional or managerial jobs, where they more likely to perform better and more satisfied. Further he found that individuals with internal locus of control orientation appear more motivated, perform better on the job, express higher job satisfaction levels, and have lower attrition rates than with external locus of control.

The F-value for the interactive effects of institutional level x locus of control is 2.38 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates the fact that joint effects of institutional level and locus of control are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B (institutional levels and levels of locus of control) is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

4.4.4 Career Orientation among Rural Female College and University Students in Relation to Parental Attitude

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by rural female college and university students having favourable and unfavourable parental attitude were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance in which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and level of institution (college and university) and parental attitude (favourable and unfavourable) are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 6.43 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are compendium in Table 4.13.

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Table 4.13

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL X PARENTAL ATTITUDE

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Institutional Level (A)	1	85.00	85.00	1.69
Parental Attitude (B)	1	1114.10	1114.10	22.19**
AXB	1	192.10	192.10	3.82
Within	116	5823.40	50.20	
Total	119	7214.60		

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.13 shows that the F-value for main effect of institutional level among female students is 1.69 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female college and university students of rural areas do not differ significantly across their career orientation.

The F-value for the main effect of the parental attitude is 22.19 which is significant at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students belonging to rural areas and having unfavourable and favourable parental attitude differ in their career orientation. Those females having favourable parental attitude have higher career orientation as compared to those having unfavourable parental attitude. The results of the studies conducted by Subramanian (2007), Gupta (2007), Anand and Banot (2007) also indicates that favourable parental attitude enhances career orientation in female college and university students where as unfavourable parental attitude decrease the career orientation among female college and university students.

The F-value for the interactive effects of institutional level x parental attitude is 3.82 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates the fact that joint effects of institutional level and parental attitude are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature

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of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B (institutional levels and levels of parental attitude) is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

4.4.5 Career Orientation among Rural Female College and University Students in Relation to Intelligence

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by rural female college and university students having high and low levels of intelligence were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and level of institution (college and university) and intelligence (low and high) are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 6.12 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are summarized in Table 4.14.

Table 4.14

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL X INTELLIGENCE

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Institutional Level (A)	1	92.50	92.50	2.90
Intelligence (B)	1	505.60	505.60	15.86**
AXB	1	79.60	79.60	2.49
Within	116	3699.00	31.88	
Total	119	4376.70		

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.14 shows that the F-value for main effect of institutional level among female students of rural areas is 2.90 which is not significant even at 0.01 level. This indicates that female college and university students of rural areas do not differ significantly in their career orientation.

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The F-value for the main effect of the intelligence is 15.86 which is significant at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students belonging to rural areas and having low and high levels of intelligence differ significantly in their career orientation this is because highly intelligent people are able to adjust well in their occupations, they have also the capacity to adapt to new environment. Darwin has rightly said that only those can survive who are fit and intelligent. Intelligent persons are fit almost in every type of job in comparison to persons who are not intelligent. Persons with low intelligence can not adjust in every type of job and are misfit in the profession, thus their career orientation is also low.

The F-value for the interactive effects of institutional level x intelligence is 2.49 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates the fact that joint effects of institutional level and intelligence are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B (institutional levels and levels of intelligence) is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

4.4.6 Career Orientation among Rural Female College and University Students in Relation to Parental Education

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by rural female college and university students having high and low levels of parental education were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and level of institution (college and university) and parental education (low and high) are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 5.81 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are presented in Table 4.15.

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Table 4.15

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL X PARENTAL EDUCATION

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Institutional Level (A)	1	165.70	165.70	0.47
Parental Education (B)	1	3110.20	3110.20	8.77**
AXB	1	226.90	226.90	0.64
Within	116	41127.60	354.54	
Total	119	44630.30		

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.15 shows that the F-value for main effect of institutional level among female students of rural areas is 0.47 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female college and university students of rural areas do not differ significantly across their career orientation.

The F-value for the main effect of the parental education is 8.77 which is significant at 0.01 level. This infers that female students belonging to rural areas and having low and high levels of parental education differ significantly in their career orientation. This finding is supported by Mortimer et al. (1992) and DeRidder (1990), who found that lower levels of parental education retard adolescents career development or occupational aspirations where as higher levels of parental education support the career development and thus resulting in higher career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of institutional level x parental education is 0.64 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates the fact that joint effects of institutional level and parental education are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B (institutional levels and levels of parental education) is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

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4.4.7 Career Orientation among Rural Female College and University Students in Relation to Parental Employment

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by rural female college and university students having high and low levels of parental employment were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and level of institution (college and university) and parental employment (low and high) are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 5.49 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are summarized in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL X PARENTAL EMPLOYMENT

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Institutional Level (A)	1	82.40	82.40	2.59
Parental Employment (B)	1	280.00	280.00	8.80**
AXB	1	108.00	108.00	3.39
Within	116	3689.96	31.81	
Total	119	4160.36		

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.16 shows that the F-value for main effect of institutional level among female students of rural areas is 2.59 which is not significant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female college and university students of rural areas do not differ significantly across their career orientation.

The F-value for the main effect of the parental employment

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is 8.80 which is significant at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students belonging to rural areas and having low and high levels of parental employment differ significantly in their career orientation. Those female students having employed parents have high career orientation whereas those with unemployed parents have low career orientation. The results are further supported by the studies of Ries (1977) and Mohan (1989) who also found that employed women prefer a higher level of education for their daughters than achieved by them. They also found that the daughters of working parents are more career oriented than the daughters of the non working parents.

The F-value for the interactive effects of institutional level x parental employment is 3.39 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that joint effects of institutional level and parental employment are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B (institutional levels and levels of parental employment) is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

4.4.8 Career Orientation among Rural Female College and University Students in Relation to Parental Income

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by rural female college and university students having high and low levels of parental income were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and level of institution (college and university) and parental income (low and high) are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 5.59 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are displayed in Table 4.17.

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Table 4.17

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL X PARENTAL INCOME

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Institutional Level (A)	1	378.10	378.10	3.45
Parental Income (B)	1	835.20	835.20	7.64**
AXB	1	12.70	12.70	0.11
Within	116	12689.40	109.30	
Total	119	13915.40		

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.17 shows that the F-value for main effect of institutional level among female students of rural areas is 3.45 which is not significant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female college and university students of rural areas do not differ significantly across their career orientation.

The F-value for the main effect of the parental income is 7.64 which is significant at 0.01 level. This infers that students belonging to rural areas and having low and high parental income differ significantly in their career orientation. It is worth while to mention here that that Duer (1992) supported the results. He found that family income is significantly associated with career orientation of children. He concluded that children in families with high income are more career oriented than those children belonging to low income group.

The F-value for the interactive effects of institutional level x parental income is 0.11 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates the fact that joint effects of institutional level and parental income are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B (institutional levels and levels of parental income) is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

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4.4.9 Career Orientation among Rural Female College and University Students in Relation to Parental Social Status

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by rural female college and university students having high and low levels of parental social status were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and level of institution (college and university) and parental social status(low and high) are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 5.22 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are displayed in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL X PARENTAL SOCIAL STATUS

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Institutional Level (A)	1	5.20	5.20	0.23
Parental Social Status (B)	1	433.10	433.10	19.51**
AXB	1	8.00	8.00	0.36
Within	116	2574.30	22.19	
Total	119	3020.60		

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.17 shows that the F-value for main effect of institutional level among female students of rural areas is 0.23 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female college and university students of rural areas do not differ significantly across their career orientation.

The F-value for the main effect of the parental social status is 19.51 which is significant at 0.01 level. This indicates that

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female students belonging to rural area and having low and high levels of parental social status differ significantly in their career orientation. The results are supported by Rao and Rao (1988) who found that social status of the parents and family income were significantly associated with career orientation of children. They also reported that parents with high social status have children with high career orientation where as parents with low social status have children with low career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of institutional level x parental social status is 0.36 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that fact that joint effects of institutional level and parental social status are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B (institutional levels and levels of parental social status) is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

From the analysis of variance of section 4.4 it is clear that female college and university students of rural areas do not differ significantly in their career orientation except in case of female college and university students with high and low self-esteem. The non significant difference in career orientation among female college and university students may be because the female college and university students of rural areas do not show much variation in their socio-economic levels. The rural female college and university students also have more or less similar facilities available at their homes. Moreover, majority of the students in these groups belong to reserved category whose parental income in most of the families is less than Rs 25000/- per month indicating same socio-economic level. The educational level of the parents of 70% of these students is less than graduate level. It may also be worth while to mention here that Brown and Brooks, (1990) pointed out that cultural and social aspects affect career choice. Since the cultural and social background of rural college and university students is more or less similar therefore, there is no significant difference in their career orientation.

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4.5 COMPARISON OF CAREER ORIENTATION AMONG FEMALE COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY STUDENTS OF RURAL AND URBAN AREAS IN RELATION TO PSYCHOLOGICAL AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC VARIABLES.

4.5.1 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Residential Background and Self-Esteem

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by urban and rural female college and university students with high and low levels of self-esteem were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance in which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and residential background (rural and urban), level of institution (college and university) and self-esteem (low and high) are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 5.59 for 7 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are displayed in Table 4.19.

Table 4.19

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL X RESIDENTIAL BACKGROUND X SELF-ESTEEM

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Institutional Level (A)	1	604.80	604.80	2.24
Residential Background (B)	1	2495.90	2495.90	9.27**
Self-Esteem (C)	1	2124.70	2124.70	7.89**
AXB	1	1192.60	1192.60	4.43*
BXC	1	2013.50	2013.50	7.48**
AXC	1	113.40	113.40	0.42
AXBXC	1	80.50	80.50	0.29
Within	232	62408.20	269.00	
Total	239	71033.6		

*Significant at 0.05 level

** Significant at 0.01 level

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The perusal of Table 4.19 shows that the F-value for main effect of institutional level among female students is 2.24 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female college and university students do not differ significantly across their career orientation.

The F-value for the main effect of the residential background is 9.27 which is significant at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students belonging to rural and urban areas differ significantly in their career orientation.

It may also be observed from Table 4.19 that F-value for the main effect of self-esteem is 7.89 which is also significant at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students with low and high self-esteem differ significantly in career orientation. It is worth mentioning that Kaur (2007) in her study found that college female students with high self-esteem are more career oriented as compared to their counterparts with low self-esteem.

The calculated F-value for the interactive effects of institutional level x residential background is 4.43 which is although significant at 0.05 level but could not attain significance at 0.01 level. This is indicative of the fact that joint effects of institutional level and residential background are dependent on each other in explaining career orientation among female students meaning that female college and university students and belonging to rural and urban areas shows significant difference in their career orientation. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B (institutional levels and levels residential background) is not same and shows significant differences in career orientation.

The calculated F-value for residential background x self-esteem is 7.48 which is significant at 0.01 level. This indicates that fact that the effects of residential background and self-esteem are dependent on each other in explaining career orientation among female students meaning that female students belonging to rural and urban background and having high and low levels of self-esteem differ significantly in their career orientation. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of B and C (levels of residential background and self-esteem) are

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not same and shows significant differences in career orientation.

The calculated F-value of self-esteem x institutional level is 0.42 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates the fact that joint effects of institutional level and self-esteem are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students meaning that female college and university students having high and low levels of self-esteem do not differ in their career orientation. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and C (institutional levels and levels of self-esteem) is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

Further F-value for triple interaction institutional level x residential background x self-esteem also turned out to be insignificant. The non-significant interaction effects are indicative that joint effects of institutional level, residential background and self-esteem are independent in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of difference in the levels of A, B and C i.e. institutional level, residential background and self-esteem in their joint influence in different combinations does not show difference in career orientation.

4.5.2 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Residential Background and Achievement Motivation

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by urban and rural female college and university students with high and low levels of achievement motivation were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance in which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and residential background (rural and urban), level of institution (college and university) and achievement motivation (low and high) are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 12.46 for 7 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are exhibited in Table 4.20.

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Table 4.20

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL X RESIDENTIAL BACKGROUND X ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Institutional Level (A)	1	317.40	317.40	3.12
Residential Background (B)	1	558.20	558.20	5.49*
Achievement Motivation (C)	1	728.00	728.00	7.17**
AXB	1	190.80	190.80	1.87
BXC	1	79.30	79.30	0.78
AXC	1	1290.40	1290.40	12.70**
AXBXC	1	112.10	112.10	1.10
Within	232	23561.50	101.55	
Total	239	25837.70		

*Significant at 0.05 level

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.20 shows that the F-value for main effect of institutional level among female students is 3.12 which is not significant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female college and university students do not differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the main effect of the residential background is 5.49 which is although significant at 0.05 level but could not attain significance at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students belonging to rural and urban areas differ significantly in their career orientation.

It may also be observed from Table 4.20 that the F-value for the main effect of achievement motivation is 7.17 which is also

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significant at 0.01 level. This shows that female students with low and high achievement motivation differ significantly in career orientation. Students with higher achievement motivation have high career orientation and students with low achievement motivation have low career orientation. The mean values of female students having high achievement motivation is 146.72 and with low achievement motivation is 143.95. This may be due to the fact that the female students with high achievement motivation are well aware of the fact that career is going to play an important role in the life of individual and these are highly motivated to pursue career while as those with low career orientation are least bothered about their career and hence less career oriented.

The F-value for the interactive effects of institutional level x residential background is 1.87 which is insignificant at 0.05 level. This is indicative of the fact that joint effects of institutional level and residential background are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students meaning that female college and university students and belonging to rural and urban areas does not show difference in their career orientation. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B (institutional levels and levels residential background) is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effect of residential background x achievement motivation is 0.78 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This is indicative of the fact that joint effects of residential background and achievement motivation are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students meaning that female students belonging to rural and urban background and having high and low levels of achievement motivation do not differ in their career orientation. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of B and C (levels of residential background and achievement motivation) is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

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The calculated F-value for institutional level x achievement motivation is 12.70 which is significant at 0.01 level. This indicates the fact that joint effects of institutional level and achievement motivation are dependent on each other in explaining career orientation among female students meaning that female college and university students having high and low levels of achievement motivation differ significantly in their career orientation. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and C (institutional levels and levels of achievement motivation) is same and shows significant differences in career orientation.

Further, F-value for triple interaction institutional level x residential background x achievement motivation turned out to be insignificant. The non-significant interaction effects are indicative that interactional effects of institutional level, residential background and achievement motivation are independent in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of difference in the levels of A, B and C i.e. institutional level, residential background and achievement motivation in their joint influence in different combinations does not show difference in career orientation.

4.5.3 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Residential Background and Locus of Control

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by urban and rural female college and university students with internal and external locus of control were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance in which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and residential background (rural and urban), level of institution (college and university) and locus of control (internal and external) are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 13.87 for 7 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are shown in Table 4.21.

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Table 4.21

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL X RESIDENTIAL BACKGROUND X LOCUS OF CONTROL

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Institutional Level (A)	1	44.20	44.20	0.20
Residential Background (B)	1	1192.60	1192.60	5.58*
Locus of Control (C)	1	57.00	57.00	0.26
AXB	1	703.80	703.80	3.29
BXC	1	501.70	501.70	2.35
AXC	1	34.50	34.50	0.16
AXBXC	1	555.10	555.10	2.60
Within	232	49514.50	213.42	
Total	239	52603.50		

*Significant at 0.05 level

The perusal of Table 4.21 shows that the F-value for main effect of institutional level among female students is 0.20 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female college and university students do not differ significantly across their career orientation.

The F-value for the main effect of the residential background is 5.58 which is although significant at 0.05 level but could not attain significance at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students belonging to rural and urban areas differ significantly in their career orientation.

It may also be observed from Table 4.21 that F-value for the main effect of locus of control is 0.26 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This shows that female students with internal and external locus of control do not differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of institutional level x residential background is 3.29, which is insignificant even at

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0.05 level. This is indicative of the fact that joint effects of institutional level and residential are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students meaning that female college and university students and belonging to rural and urban areas does not show difference in their career orientation. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B (institutional levels and levels residential background) is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effect of residential background x locus of control is 2.35 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This is indicative of the fact that joint effects of residential background and locus of control are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students meaning that female students belonging to rural and urban background and having internal and external locus of control do not differ in their career orientation. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of B and C (levels of residential background and locus of control) is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of institutional level x locus of control is 0.16 which are insignificant even at 0.05 level. This is indicative of the fact that the effects of institutional level and locus of control are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students meaning that female college and university students having internal and external locus of control do not differ in their career orientation. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and C (institutional levels and locus of control) is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

Further, F-value for triple interaction of institutional level x residential background x locus of control also turned out to be insignificant. The non-significant interaction effects are indicative that joint effects of institutional level, residential background and locus of control are independent in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of difference in the levels of A, B and C i.e. institutional level, residential background and locus of control in their joint influence in different combinations does not show difference in career orientation.

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4.5.4 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Residential Background and Parental Attitude

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by urban and rural female college and university students favourable and unfavourable parental attitude were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance in which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and residential background (rural and urban), level of institution (college and university) and parental attitude (favourable and unfavourable) are independent variable. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 10.78 for 7 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are presented in 4.22.

Table 4.22
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL X RESIDENTIAL BACKGROUND X PARENTAL ATTITUDE

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Institutional Level (A)	1	55.10	55.10	0.24
Residential Background (B)	1	1473.20	1473.20	6.53*
Parental Attitude (C)	1	1262.50	1262.50	5.60*
AXB	1	418.70	418.70	1.85
BXC	1	980.10	980.10	4.34*
AXC	1	2047.50	2047.50	9.08**
AXBXC	1	192.60	192.60	0.85
Within	232	52302.40	225.44	
Total	239	58732.10		

*Significant at 0.05 level
** Significant at 0.01 level

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The perusal of Table 4.22 shows that the F-value for main effect of institutional level among female students is 0.24 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female college and university students do not differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the main effect of the residential background is 6.53 which is significant at 0.05 level but could not attain the significance at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students belonging to rural and urban areas differ significantly in their career orientation.

It may also be observed from Table 4.22 that F-value for the main effect of parental attitude is 5.60 which is significant at 0.05 level but could not attain the significance at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students with unfavourable and favourable parental attitude differ significantly in their career orientation. The results of the studies conducted by Subramanian (2007), Gupta (2007), Anand and Banot (2007) also indicates that favourable parental attitude enhances career orientation in female students where as unfavourable parental attitude decrease the career orientation among female students.

The calculated F-value for the interactive effects of institutional level x residential background is 1.85 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. The insignificant F-value indicates that joint effects of institutional level and residential background are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students meaning that female college and university students belonging to rural and urban areas does not show difference in their career orientation. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B (institutional levels and levels residential background) is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

The calculated F-value for residential background x parental attitude is 4.34 which is although significant at 0.05 level but could not attain significance at 0.01 level. This is indicative of the fact that joint effect of residential background and parental attitude are dependent on each other in explaining career orientation among female students meaning that female students belonging to

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rural and urban background and having favourable and unfavourable parental attitude differ in their career orientation. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of B and C (levels of residential background and parental attitude) is not same and shows significant differences in career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of parental attitude x institutional level is 9.08 which is significant at 0.01 level. This is indicative of the fact that joint effect of institutional level and parental attitude are dependent on each other in explaining career orientation among female students meaning that female college and university students having favourable and unfavourable parental attitude differ significantly in their career orientation. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and C (institutional levels and levels of parental attitude) is not same and shows significant differences in career orientation.

Further, F-value for triple interaction institutional level x residential background x parental attitude turned out to be insignificant. The non-significant interaction effects are indicative that joint effects of institutional level, residential background and parental attitude are independent in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of difference in the levels of A, B and C i.e. institutional level, residential background and parental attitude in their joint influence in different combinations does not show difference in career orientation.

4.5.5 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Residential Background and Intelligence

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by urban and rural female college and university students with high and low levels of intelligence were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance in which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and residential background (rural and urban), level of institution (college and university) and intelligence (low and high) are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance

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the value of chi-square came out to be 9.68 for 7 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are shown in Table 4.23.

Table 4.23

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL X RESIDENTIAL BACKGROUND X INTELLIGENCE

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Institutional Level (A)	1	86.40	86.40	0.34
Residential Background (B)	1	641.10	141.10	0.55
Intelligence (C)	1	1426.70	1426.70	5.64*
AXB	1	106.70	106.70	0.42
BXC	1	299.30	299.30	1.18
AXC	1	1041.70	1041.70	4.12*
AXBXC	1	117.60	117.60	0.46
Within	232	58632.40	252.70	
Total	239	62351.90		

*Significant at 0.05 level

The perusal of Table 4.23 shows that the F-value for main effect of institutional level among female college and university students is 0.34 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female college and university students do not differ significantly across their career orientation.

The F-value for the main effect of the residential background is 0.55 which is again insignificant at 0.05 level. This indicates that female students belonging to rural and urban areas do not differ significantly in their career orientation.

It may also be observed from Table 4.23 that F-value for the main effects of intelligence is 5.64 which is although significant at

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0.05 level but could not attain significance at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students with low and high intelligence differ significantly in their career orientation this is because highly intelligent people are able to adjust well in their occupations; they have also the capacity to adapt to new environment. Darwin has rightly said that only those can survive who are fit and intelligent. Intelligent persons are fit almost in every type of job in comparison to persons who are not intelligent. Persons with low intelligence can not adjust in every type of job and are misfit in the profession, thus their career orientation is also low.

The calculated F-value for the interactive effects of institutional level x residential background is 0.42 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This is indicative of the fact that joint effects of institutional level and residential background are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students meaning that female college and university students belonging to rural and urban areas does not show difference in their career orientation. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B (institutional levels and levels residential background) is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

The F-value for residential background x intelligence is 1.18 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. The insignificant F-value indicates that joint effects of residential background and intelligence are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students meaning that female students belonging to rural and urban background and having high and low levels of intelligence do not differ in their career orientation. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of B and C (levels of residential background and intelligence) is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

However, the calculated F-value for institutional level x intelligence is 4.12 which is although significant at 0.05 level but

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could not attain the significance at 0.01 level. This is indicative of the fact that joint effect of institutional level and intelligence are dependent on each other in explaining career orientation among female students meaning that female college and university students having high and low levels of intelligence differ significantly in their career orientation. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and C (institutional levels and levels of intelligence) is not same and shows significant differences in career orientation.

Further, F-value for triple interaction institutional level x residential background x intelligence turned out to be insignificant. The non-significant interaction effects are indicative that joint effects of institutional level, residential background and intelligence are independent in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of difference in the levels of A, B and C i.e. institutional level, residential background and intelligence in their joint influence in different combinations does not show difference in career orientation.

4.5.6 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Residential Background and Parental Education

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by urban and rural female college and university students with high and low levels of parental education were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance in which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and residential background (rural and urban), level of institution (college and university) and parental education (low and high) are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 9.82 for 7 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are displayed in Table 4.24.

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Table 4.24

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL X RESIDENTIAL BACKGROUND X PARENTAL EDUCATION

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Institutional Level (A)	1	13.50	13.50	0.11
Residential Background (B)	1	617.60	617.60	5.08*
Parental Education (C)	1	1456.50	1456.50	11.99**
AXB	1	210.90	210.90	1.73
BXC	1	42.50	42.50	0.34
AXC	1	766.80	766.80	6.31*
AXBXC	1	40.80	40.80	0.33
Within	232	28175.00	121.44	
Total	239	31323.60		

*Significant at 0.05 level

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.24 shows that the F-value for main effect of institutional level among female students is 0.11 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female college and university students do not differ significantly across their career orientation.

The F-value for the main effect of the residential background is 5.08 which is significant at 0.05 level. The F-value although significant at 0.05 level could not attain significance at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students belonging to rural and urban areas differ in their career orientation.

It may also be observed from Table 4.24 that F-value for the main effect of parental education is 11.99 which is significant at 0.01 level. This infers that female students with low and high parental education differ significantly in their career orientation. This finding is supported by Mortimer et al. (1992) and DeRidder (1990),

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who found that lower levels of parental education retard adolescents career development or occupational aspirations where as higher levels of parental education support the career development and thus resulting in higher career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of institutional level x residential background is 1.73 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This is indicative of the fact that joint effects of institutional level and residential background are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students meaning that female college and university students and belonging to rural and urban areas do not show significant difference in their career orientation. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B (institutional levels and levels residential background) is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of residential background x parental education 0.34 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that effect of institutional level and residential background are independent of each other also the joint effect of residential background and parental education are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students meaning that female students belonging to rural and urban background and having high and low levels of parental education do not differ in their career orientation. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of B and C (levels of residential background and parental education) is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

However, the calculated F-value for institutional level x parental education is 6.31 which is although significant at 0.05 level but could not attain the significance at 0.01 level. This is indicative of the fact that joint effect of institutional level and parental education are dependent on each other in explaining career orientation among female students meaning that female college and university students having high and low levels of parental education differ significantly in their career orientation. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and C (institutional levels and levels of parental education) is not same and shows differences in career orientation.

Further F-value for triple interaction institutional level x residential background x parental education turned out to be insignifi-

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cant. The non-significant interaction effects are indicative that joint effects of institutional level, residential background and parental education are independent in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of difference in the levels of A, B and C i.e. institutional level, residential background and parental education in their joint influence in different combinations does not show difference in career orientation.

4. 5.7. Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Residential Background and Parental Employment

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by urban and rural female college and university students with high and low levels of parental employment were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance in which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and residential background (rural and urban), level of institution (college and university) and parental employment are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 13.59 for 7 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are displayed in Table 4.25.

Table 4.25

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL X RESIDENTIAL BACKGROUND X PARENTAL EMPLOYMENT

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Institutional Level (A)	1	100.10	100.10	2.07
Residential Background (B)	1	968.00	968.00	20.08**
Parental Employment (C)	1	401.40	401.40	8.32**
AXB	1	256.30	256.30	5.31*
BXC	1	6.70	6.70	0.13
AXC	1	442.80	442.80	9.18**
AXBXC	1	100.40	100.40	2.08
Within	232	11189.50	48.20	
Total	239	13465.20		

*Significant at 0.05 level

** Significant at 0.01 level

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The perusal of Table 4.25 shows that the F-value for main effect of institutional level among female students is 2.07 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female college and university students do not differ significantly across their career orientation.

The F-value for the main effect of the residential background is 20.08 which is significant at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students belonging to rural and urban areas differ significantly in their career orientation.

It may also be observed from Table 4.25 that F-value for the main effect of parental employment is 8.32 which is significant at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students with low and high parental employment differ significantly in their career orientation. The results are further supported by the studies of Ries (1977) and Mohan (1989) who also found that employed women prefer a higher level of education for their daughters than achieved by them. They also found that the daughters of working parents are more career oriented than the daughters of the non working parents.

The calculated F-value for the interactive effects of institutional level x residential background is 5.31 which is significant at 0.05 but could not attain significance at 0.01. The significant F-value indicates that joint effects of institutional level and residential background are dependent on each other in explaining career orientation among female students meaning that female college and university students belonging to rural and urban areas shows significant difference in their career orientation. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B (institutional levels and levels residential background) is not same and shows differences in career orientation.

The calculated F-value for the interactive effects of residential background x parental employment is 0.13 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. The insignificant F-value indicates that effects residential background and parental employment are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students meaning that female students belonging to rural and urban background and with high and low levels of parental income do not differ in their career orientation. In other words the nature

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of differences under joint influence of different levels of B and C (levels of residential background and parental employment) is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

However, the calculated F-value for parental employment x institutional level is 9.18 which is significant at 0.01 level. The significant F-value indicates that the main effect of institutional level and parental employment are dependent on each other in explaining career orientation among female students meaning that female college and university students having high and low levels of parental employment differ significantly in their career orientation. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and C (institutional levels and levels of parental employment) is not same and shows significant differences in career orientation.

Further, F-value for triple interaction institutional level x residential background x parental employment turned out to be insignificant. The non-significant interaction effects are indicative that joint effects of institutional level, residential background and parental employment are independent in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of difference in the levels of A, B and C i.e. institutional level, residential background and parental employment in their joint influence in different combinations does not show difference in career orientation.

4.5.8 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Residential Background and Parental Income

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by urban and rural female college and university students with high and low levels of parental income were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance in which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and residential background (rural and urban), level of institution (college and university) and parental income (high and low) are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 12.72 for 7 df at 0.05 level

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indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are exhibited in Table 4.26.

Table 4.26

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL X RESIDENTIAL BACKGROUND X PARENTAL INCOME

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Institutional Level (A)	1	147.30	147.30	1.72
Residential Background (B)	1	707.30	707.30	8.27**
Parental Income (C)	1	746.80	746.80	8.73**
AXB	1	236.00	236.00	2.76
BXC	1	2.40	2.40	0.02
AXC	1	106.70	106.70	1.24
AXBXC	1	28.00	28.00	0.32
Within	232	19857.10	85.50	
Total	239	21831.60		

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.26 shows that the F-value for main effect of institutional level among female students is 1.72 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female college and university students do not differ significantly across their career orientation.

The F-value for the main effect of the residential background is 8.27 which is significant at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students belonging to rural and urban areas differ in their career orientation. Students belonging to rural areas have low career orientation whereas students belonging to urban areas have higher career orientation (136.29, 153.98).

It may also be observed from Table 4.26 that F-value for the

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main effect of parental income is 8.73 which is significant at 0.01 level. This means that female students with low and high parental income differ significantly in their career orientation. Those with high parental income have high career orientation (M= 148.79) and those with low parental income have low career orientation (M=141.5). It is worth while to mention here that that Duer (1992) supported the results. He found that family income is significantly associated with career orientation of children. He concluded that children in families with high income are more career oriented than those children belonging to low income group.

The F-value for the interactive effects of institutional level x residential background is 2.76 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. The insignificant F-value indicates that combined effects of institutional level and residential background are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students meaning that female college and university students belonging to rural and urban areas does not show difference in their career orientation. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B (institutional levels and levels residential background) is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

The calculated F-value for the interactive effects of residential background x parental income is 0.02 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. The insignificant F-value indicates that the effect of residential background and parental income are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students meaning that female students belonging to rural and urban background and having low and high values of parental income do not differ in their career orientation. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of B and C (levels of residential background and parental income) is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

Also, the calculated F-value for institutional level x parental income is 1.24 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. The

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insignificant F-value is indicative of the fact that joint effect of institutional level and parental income are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students meaning that female college and university students having high and low levels of parental income do not differ significantly in their career orientation. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and C (institutional levels and levels of parental income) is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

Further, F-value for triple interaction institutional level x residential background x parental income also turned out to be insignificant. The non-significant interaction effects are indicative that combined effects of institutional level, residential background and parental income are independent in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of difference in the levels of A, B and C i.e. institutional level, residential background and parental income in their joint influence in different combinations does not show difference in career orientation.

4.5.9 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Residential Background and Parental Social Status

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by urban and rural female college and university students with high and low levels of parental social status were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance in which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and residential background (rural and urban), level of institution (college and university) and social status (low and high) are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 5.59 for 7 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are shown in Table 4.27.

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Table 4.27

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL X RESIDENTIAL BACKGROUND X PARENTAL SOCIAL STATUS

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Institutional Level (A)	1	27.30	27.30	0.36
Residential Background (B)	1	495.90	495.90	6.55*
Parental Social Status (C)	1	377.50	377.50	4.99*
AXB	1	71.50	71.50	0.94
BXC	1	627.60	627.60	8.30**
AXC	1	189.00	189.00	2.50
AXBXC	1	95.00	95.00	1.25
Within	232	17550.60	75.60	
Total	239	19434.50		

*Significant at 0.05 level

** Significant at 0.01 level

It may be seen from Table 4.27 that the F-value for main effect of institutional level is 0.36 which is not significant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female college and university students do not differ significantly across their career orientation.

The F-value for the main effect of the residential background is 6.55 which is although significant at 0.05 level but could not attain significance at 0.01 level. This concludes that female students belonging to rural and urban areas differ in their career orientation.

It may also be observed from Table 4.27 that F-value for the main effect of parental social status is 4.99 which is although significant at 0.05 level but could not attain significance at 0.01 level. This means that female students with high and low levels of parental social status differ significantly in their career orientation. Those

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having higher parental social status have significantly higher career orientation than their counterparts with lower parental social status. Since the mean of female students with high parental social status is 147.18 and that with low parental social status is 143.5. The results are supported by Rao and Rao (1988) who found that social status of the parents and family income were significantly associated with career orientation of children. They also reported that parents with high social status have children with high career orientation where as parents with low social status have children with low career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of institutional level x residential background is 0.94 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. The insignificant F-value indicates that joint effects of institutional level and residential background are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students meaning that female college and university students belonging to rural and urban areas does not show difference in their career orientation. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B (institutional levels and levels residential background) is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

The calculated F-value for the interactive effects of residential background x parental social status is 8.30 which is significant at 0.01 level. This is indicative of the fact that the joint effect of residential background and parental social status are dependent on each other in explaining career orientation among female students meaning that female students belonging to rural and urban background and having low and high level of parental social status differ significantly in their career orientation. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of B and C (levels of residential background and parental social status) is not same and shows significant differences in career orientation.

However, the calculated F-value for institutional level x parental social status is 2.50 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This is indicative of the fact that the effect of institutional level and parental social status are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students meaning that female college and university students having high and low levels

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of parental social status do not differ significantly in their career orientation. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and C (institutional levels and levels of parental social status) is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

Further, F-value for triple interaction institutional level x residential background x parental social status turned out to be insignificant. The non-significant interaction effects are indicative of the fact that joint effects of institutional levels, residential background and parental social status are independent in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of difference in the levels of A, B and C i.e. institutional level, residential background and parental social status in their joint influence in different combinations does not show difference in career orientation.

From the analysis of variance of section 4.5 it is clear that female students studying in college and university do not differ significantly in their career orientation this may be due to the fact that students of the college and university have approximately similar knowledge and similar intelligence. At the same time 80% of the students wish to join the university and pursue post graduation after passing their degree examination. Most of the female students whether studying in college or university want to join the job only after completing their post graduation and thus do not show difference in their career orientation.

From the analysis of variance of section 4.5 it is also clear that female students of urban and rural areas differ significantly in their career orientation. The significant difference in career orientation among urban and rural female students may be due to the fact that students of urban and rural areas show much variation in their socio-economic levels. The urban and rural female students have altogether different facilities available at their homes. Moreover, majority of the students belonging to urban areas belong to general category whose parental income in most of the families is above Rs 25000/- per month whereas the students belonging to rural areas belong to reserved category and have monthly parental income of less than Rs 25000/- per month thereby indicating difference in socio-economic status. Also the educational level of parents of 70% students of urban areas is upto graduate level where as it is below graduate level in case of the parents of the students

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belonging to rural areas. It may also be worthwhile to mention here that Brown and Brooks, (1990) pointed out that cultural and social aspects affect career choice. Since the cultural and social background of urban and rural students is entirely different so they show significantly difference in their career orientation.

4.6 CAREER ORIENTATION AMONG FEMALE COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY STUDENTS IN RELATION TO PSYCHOLOGICAL VARIABLES

4.6.1 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Self-Esteem and Achievement Motivation

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by female college and university students with high and low levels of self-esteem and achievement motivation were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and self-esteem and achievement motivation are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 6.53 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are shown in Table 4.28.

Table 4.28

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SELF-ESTEEM X ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Self-Esteem (A)	1	38.00	38.00	0.36
Achievement Motivation (B)	1	727.70	727.70	6.92**
AXB	1	125.10	125.10	1.19
Within	476	50018.80	105.08	
Total	479	50909.60		

** Significant at 0.01 level

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The perusal of Table 4.28 shows that the F-value for main effect of self-esteem among female students is 0.36 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female students having high and low levels of self-esteem o not differ significantly in their career orientation.

It may also be observed from Table 4.28 that F-value for the main effect of achievement motivation is 6.92 which is significant at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students with low and high achievement motivation differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of self-esteem x achievement motivation is 1.19 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. These are indicative of the fact that joint effects of self-esteem and achievement motivation are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B i.e. self-esteem and achievement motivation is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

4.6.2 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Self-Esteem and Locus of Control

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by female college and university students with high and low levels of self-esteem and internal and external locus of control were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and self-esteem and locus of control are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 5.59 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are shown in Table 4.29.

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Table 4.29

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SELF-ESTEEM X LOCUS OF CONTROL

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Self-Esteem (A)	1	170.40	170.40	1.64
Locus of Control (B)	1	1099.00	1099.00	10.63**
A x B	1	448.50	448.50	4.33*
Within	476	49201.90	103.36	
Total	479	50919.80		

* Significant at 0.05 level

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.29 shows that the F-value for main effect of self-esteem among female students is 1.64 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female students do not differ significantly across their career orientation in relation to self-esteem.

It may also be observed from Table 4.29 that F-value for the main effect of locus of control is 10.63 which is significant at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students with internal and external locus of control differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of self-esteem x locus of control is 4.33 which is although significant at 0.05 level but could not attain significance at 0.01 level. These are indicative of the fact that joint effects of self-esteem and locus of control are dependent on each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B i.e. self-esteem and locus of control is not same and shows significant differences in career orientation.

4.6.3 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Self-Esteem and Parental Attitude

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by

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female students with high and low levels of self-esteem and favourable and unfavourable parental attitude were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and self-esteem and parental attitude are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 4.93 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are shown in Table 4.30.

Table 4.30

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SELF-ESTEEM X PARENTAL ATTITUDE

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Self-Esteem (A)	1	764.00	764.00	5.92*
Parental Attitude (B)	1	774.50	774.50	6.00*
A x B	1	12.70	12.70	0.09
Within	476	61378.80	128.94	
Total	479	62930.00		

*Significant at 0.05 level

The perusal of Table 4.30 shows that the F-value for main effect of self-esteem is 5.92 which is although significant at 0.05 level but could not attain significance at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students differ significantly is their career orientation in relation to self-esteem.

It may also be observed from Table 4.30 that F-value for the main effect of parental attitude is 6.00 which is although significant at 0.05 level but could not attain significance at 0.01 level. This infers that female students with unfavourable and favourable parental attitude differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of self-esteem x parental attitude is 0.09 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. These are indicative of the fact that effects of self-esteem and pa-

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rental attitude are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B i.e. self-esteem and parental attitude same and does not show differences in career orientation.

4.6.4 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Self-Esteem and Intelligence

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by female college and university students with high and low levels of self-esteem and intelligence were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and self-esteem and intelligence are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 3.25 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are displayed in Table 4.31.

Table 4.31

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SELF-ESTEEM X INTELLIGENCE

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Self-Esteem (A)	1	514.60	514.60	4.44*
Intelligence (B)	1	99.90	99.90	0.86
A x B	1	47.50	47.50	0.40
Within	476	55176.40	115.90	
Total	479	55838.40		

*Significant at 0.05 level

The perusal of Table 4.31 shows main effect of self-esteem among female college and university students is 4.44 which is although significant at 0.05 level but could not attain the significance at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students differ significantly across their career orientation in relation to self-esteem.

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It may also be observed from Table 4.31 that F-value for the main effect of intelligence is 0.86 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female students with low and high levels intelligence do not differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of self-esteem x intelligence is 0.40 which is also insignificant even at 0.05 level. These are indicative of the fact that effects of self-esteem and intelligence are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B i.e. self-esteem and intelligence is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

4.6.5 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Achievement Motivation and Locus of Control

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by female college and university students with high and low levels of achievement motivation and internal and external locus of control were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and achievement motivation and locus of control are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 4.63 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are presented in Table 4.32.

Table 4.32

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION X LOCUS OF CONTROL

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Achievement Motivation(A)	1	33.60	33.60	0.32
Locus of Control (B)	1	47.50	47.50	0.45
A x B	1	1047.30	1047.3	10.09**
Within	476	49402.50	103.78	
Total	479	50530.90		

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** Significant at 0.01 level

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The perusal of Table 4.32 shows that the F-value for main effect of achievement motivation among female students is 0.32 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female students do not differ significantly across their career orientation in relation to achievement motivation.

It may also be observed from Table 4.32 that F-value for the main effect of locus of control is 0.45 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female students with internal and external locus of control do not differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of achievement motivation x locus of control is 10.09 which is significant at 0.01 level. These are indicative of the fact that effects of achievement motivation and locus of control are dependent on each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B i.e. achievement motivation and locus of control is not same and shows significant differences in career orientation.

4.6.6 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Achievement Motivation and Parental Attitude

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by female college and university students with high and low levels of achievement motivation and parental attitude were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance similarly as in case of 4.3.1 in which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and achievement motivation and parental attitude are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 2.39 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are shown in Table 4.33.

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Table 4.33

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION X PARENTAL ATTITUDE

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Achievement Motivation (A)	1	966.90	966.90	7.47**
Parental Attitude (B)	1	932.40	932.40	7.20**
A x B	1	58.10	58.10	0.44
Within	476	61579.40	129.36	
Total	479	63536.80		

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.33 shows that the F-value for main effect of achievement motivation among female students is 7.47 which is significant at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students differ significantly is their career orientation in relation to achievement motivation.

It may also be observed from Table 4.33 that F-value for the main effect of parental attitude is 7.20 which is also significant at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students with unfavourable and favourable parental attitude differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of achievement motivation x parental attitude is 0.44 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. These are indicative of the fact that interactive effects of achievement motivation and parental attitude are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B i.e. achievement motivation and parental attitude is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

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4.6.7 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Achievement Motivation and Intelligence

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by female college and university students with high and low levels of achievement motivation and intelligence were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and achievement motivation and intelligence are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 6.93 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are shown in Table 4.34.

Table 4.34

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION X INTELLIGENCE

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Achievement				
Motivation(A)	1	1147.00	1147.00	9.86**
Intelligence (B)	1	814.70	814.70	7.01**
A x B	1	918.40	918.40	7.89**
Within	476	55377.10	116.33	
Total	479	58257.10		

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.34 shows that the F-value for main effect of achievement motivation among female students is 9.86 which is significant at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students differ significantly across their career orientation in relation to achievement motivation.

It may also be observed from Table 4.34 that F-value for the main effect of intelligence is 7.01 which is significant at 0.01 level.

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This indicates that female students with low and high intelligence differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of achievement motivation x intelligence is 7.89 which is significant at 0.01 level. These are indicative of the fact that effects of achievement motivation and intelligence are dependent on each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B i.e. achievement motivation and intelligence is not same and shows significant differences in career orientation.

4.6.8 Career Orientation among Female College And University Students in Relation to Locus of Control and Parental Attitude

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by female college and university students with internal and external locus of control and favourable and unfavourable parental attitude were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and locus of control and parental attitude are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 7.02 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are exhibited in Table 4.35.

Table 4.35

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR LOCUS OF CONTROL X PARENTAL ATTITUDE

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Locus of Control (A)	1	36.30	36.30	0.28
Parental Attitude (B)	1	803.30	803.30	6.29*
A x B	1	612.00	612.00	4.79*
Within	476	60762.50	127.65	
Total	479	62214.10		

*Significant at 0.05 level

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The perusal of Table 4.35 shows that the F-value for main effect of locus of control among female students is 0.28 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female students do not differ significantly across their career orientation in relation to locus of control.

It may also be observed from Table 4.35 that F-value for the main effect of parental attitude is 6.29 which is although significant at 0.05 level but could not attain the significance at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students with unfavourable and favourable parental attitude differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of locus of control x parental attitude is 4.79 which is although significant at 0.05 level but could not attain significance at 0.01 level. These are indicative of the fact that effects of locus of control and parental attitude are dependent on each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B i.e. locus of control and parental attitude is not same and shows differences in career orientation.

4.6.9 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Locus of Control and Intelligence

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by female college and university students with internal and external locus of control and low and high levels of intelligence were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and locus of control and intelligence are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 7.02 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are exhibited in Table 4.36.

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Table 4.36

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR LOCUS OF CONTROL X INTELLIGENCE

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Locus of Control (A)	1	2.30	2.30	0.02
Intelligence (B)	1	9.40	9.40	0.08
A x B	1	788.00	788.00	6.87**
Within	476	54560.20	114.62	
Total	479	55359.90		

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.36 shows that the F-value for main effect of locus of control among female students is 0.02 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This means that female students do not differ significantly across their career orientation in relation to locus of control.

It may also be observed from Table 4.36 that F-value for the main effect of intelligence is 0.08 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This shows that female students with low and high intelligence do not differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of locus of control x intelligence is 6.87 which is significant at 0.01 level. These are indicative of the fact that interactive effects of locus of control and intelligence are dependent on each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B i.e. locus of control and intelligence is not same and shows differences in career orientation.

4.6.10 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Parental Attitude and Intelligence.

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by female college and university students with favourable and unfavourable parental attitude and high and low levels of intelli-

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gence were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and parental attitude and intelligence are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 4.98 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are shown in Table 4.37.

Table 4.37

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR PARENTAL ATTITUDE X INTELLIGENCE

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Parental Attitude (A)	1	688.80	688.80	4.91*
Intelligence (B)	1	82.50	82.50	0.58
A x B	1	11.10	11.10	0.07
Within	476	66737.00	140.20	
Total	479	67519.40		

*Significant at 0.05 level

The perusal of Table 4.37 shows that the F-value for main effect of parental attitude among female students is 4.91 which is although significant at 0.05 level but could not attain significance at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students differ significantly across their career orientation in relation to parental attitude. Female students with unfavourable parental attitude have low career orientation and with favourable parental attitude have high career orientation.

It may also be observed from Table 4.37 that F-value for the main effect of intelligence is 0.58 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This infers that female students with low and high intelligence do not differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of parental attitude x intelligence is 0.07 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. These

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are indicative of the fact that effects of parental attitude and intelligence are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B i.e. parental attitude and intelligence is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

4.7 CAREER ORIENTATION AMONG FEMALE COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY STUDENTS IN RELATION TO SOCIO-ECONOMIC VARIABLES

4.7.1 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Parental Education and Parental Employment

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by female college and university students with high and low levels of parental education and parental employment were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and parental employment and parental education are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 6.12 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are displayed in Table 4.38.

Table 4.38

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR PARENTAL EDUCATION X PARENTAL EMPLOYMENT

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Parental Education (A)	1	1283.70	1283.70	9.74**
Parental Employment(B)	1	1494.10	1494.10	11.33**
AXB	1	1063.80	1063.80	08.07**
Within	476	62731.10	131.78	
Total	479	66572.70		

** Significant at 0.01 level

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The perusal of Table 4.38 shows that the F-value for main effect of parental education among female students is 9.74 which is significant at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students differ significantly across their career orientation in relation to parental education.

It may also be observed from Table 4.38 that F-value for the main effect of parental employment is 11.33 which is significant at 0.01 level. This shows that female students with low and high levels parental employment differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of parental education x parental employment is 8.07 which is significant at 0.01 level. These are indicative of the fact that effects of parental education and parental employment are dependent on each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B i.e. parental education and parental employment is not same and shows differences in career orientation.

4.7.2 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Parental Education and Parental Income

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by female college and university students with high and low levels of parental education and parental income were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and parental education and parental income are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 3.98 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are exhibited in Table 4.39.

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Table 4.39

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR PARENTAL EDUCATION X PARENTAL INCOME

Source	Df	SS	MS	F
Parental Education (A)	1	1048.80	1048.80	8.19**
Parental Income (B)	1	1105.50	1105.50	8.63**
A x B	1	1397.90	1397.90	10.92**
Within	476	60952.10	128.05	
Total	479	64504.30		

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.39 shows that the F-value for main effect of parental education among female students is 8.19 which is significant at 0.01 level. This shows that female students differ significantly across their career orientation in relation to parental education.

It may also be observed from Table 4.39 that F-value for the main effect of parental income is 8.63 which is significant at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students with low and high levels of parental income differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of parental education x parental income is 10.92 which is significant at 0.01 level. These are indicative of the fact that joint effects of parental education and parental income are dependent on each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B i.e. parental education and parental income is not same and shows differences in career orientation.

4.7.3 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Parental Education and Parental Social Status

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by female college and university students with high and low levels of parental education and parental social status were analyzed using

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the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and parental education and parental social status are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 5.21 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are exhibited in Table 4.40.

Table 4.40

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR PARENTAL EDUCATION X PARENTAL SOCIAL STATUS

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Parental Education (A)	1	1093.60	1093.60	8.90**
Parental Social				
Status (B)	1	832.10	832.10	6.77**
A x B	1	1001.90	1001.90	8.16**
Within	476	58424.30	122.74	
Total	479	61351.90		

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.40 shows that the F-value for main effect of parental education among female students is 8.90 which is significant at 0.01 level. This infers that female students differ significantly across their career orientation in relation to parental education.

It may also be observed from Table 4.40 that F-value for the main effect of parental social status is 6.77 which is significant at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students with low and high levels parental social status differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of parental education x parental social status is 8.16 which is significant at 0.01 level. These are indicative of the fact that joint effects of parental educa-

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tion and parental social status are dependent on each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B i.e. parental education and parental social status is not same and shows differences in career orientation.

4.7.4 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Parental Employment and Parental Income

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by female college and university students with high and low levels of parental employment and parental income were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and parental employment and parental income are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 6.32 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are displayed in Table 4.83. Table 4.41

Table 4.41

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR PARENTAL EMPLOYMENT X PARENTAL INCOME

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Parental Employment(A)	1	1097.20	1097.20	8.16**
Parental Income (B)	1	1005.20	1005.20	7.48**
A x B	1	1143.00	1143.00	8.50**
Within	476	63948.50	134.34	
Total	479	67194.00		

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.41 shows that the F-value for main

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effect of parental employment among female students is 8.16 which is significant at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students differ significantly across their career orientation in relation to parental employment.

It may also be observed from Table 4.41 that F-value for the main effect of parental income is 7.48 which is significant at 0.01 level. This shows that female students with low and high levels parental income differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of parental employment x parental income is 8.50 which is again significant at 0.01 level. These are indicative of the fact that effects of parental employment and parental income are dependent on each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B i.e. parental employment and parental income is not same and shows differences in career orientation.

4.7.5 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Parental Employment and Parental Social Status

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by female college and university students with high and low levels of parental employment and parental social status were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and parental employment and parental social status are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 5.45 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are exhibited in Table 4.42.

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Table 4.42

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR PARENTAL EMPLOYMENT X PARENTAL SOCIAL STATUS

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Parental Employment(A)	1	1051.40	1051.40	8.14**
Parental Social Status (B)	1	1435.10	1435.10	11.12**
A X B	1	1043.80	1043.80	8.08**
Within	476	61420.80	129.03	
Total	479	64951.10		

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.42 shows that the F-value for main effect of parental employment among female students is 8.14 which is significant at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students differ significantly across their career orientation in relation to parental employment.

It may also be observed from Table 4.42 that F-value for the main effect of parental social status is 11.12 which is also significant at 0.01 level. This infers that female students with low and high levels parental social status differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of parental employment x parental social status is 8.08 which is again significant at 0.01 level. These are indicative of the fact that effects of parental employment and parental social status are dependent on each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B i.e. parental employment and parental social status is not same and shows differences in career orientation.

4.7.6 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Parental Income and Parental Social Status

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by female college and university students with high and low levels of

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parental income and parental social status were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and parental income and parental social status are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 4.65 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are presented in Table 4.43.

Table 4.43

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR PARENTAL INCOME X PARENTAL SOCIAL STATUS

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Parental Income (A)	1	1007.30	1007.30	8.04**
Parental Social Status (B)	1	1079.20	1079.20	8.61**
A x B	1	345.10	345.10	2.75
Within	476	59641.80	125.20	
Total	479	62073.40		

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.43 shows that the F-value for main effect of parental income among female students is 8.04 which is significant at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students differ significantly across their career orientation in relation to parental income.

It may also be observed from Table 4.43 that F-value for the main effect of parental social status is 8.61 which is significant at 0.01 level. This infers that female students with low and high parental social status differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of parental income x parental social status is 2.75 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. These are indicative of the fact that effects of parental income and parental social status are independent of each other in

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explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B i.e. parental income and parental social status is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

4.8 CAREER ORIENTATION AMONG FEMALE COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY STUDENTS IN RELATION TO PSYCHOLOGICAL AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC VARIABLES

4.8.1 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Self-Esteem and Parental Education

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by female college and university students with high and low levels of self-esteem and parental education were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and self-esteem and parental education are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 6.39 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are exhibited in Table 4.44.

Table 4.44

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SELF-ESTEEM X PARENTAL EDUCATION

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Self Esteem (A)	1	255.20	255.20	2.21
Parental Education (B)	1	529.20	529.20	4.59*
AXB	1	52.00	52.00	0.45
Within	476	54776.40	115.07	
Total	479	55612.8		

*Significant at 0.05 level

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The perusal of Table 4.44 shows that the F-value for main effect of self-esteem among female students is 2.21 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female students do not differ significantly across their career orientation in relation to self-esteem.

It may also be observed from Table 4.44 that F-value for the main effect of parental education is 4.59 which is although significant at 0.05 level but could not attain significance at 0.01 level. This shows that female students with low and high parental education differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of self-esteem x parental education is 0.45 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. These are indicative of the fact that effects of self-esteem and parental education are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B i.e. parental education and self-esteem is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

4.8.2 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Self-Esteem and Parental Employment

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by female college and university students with high and low levels of self-esteem and parental employment were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and self-esteem and parental employment are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 4.12 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are exhibited in Table 4.45.

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Table 4.45

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SELF-ESTEEM X PARENTAL EMPLOYMENT

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Self-Esteem (A)	1	400.80	400.80	3.30
Parental Employment (B)	1	1225.50	1225.50	10.09**
A x B	1	300.60	300.60	2.47
Within	476	57772.90	121.37	
Total	479	59699.80		

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.45 shows that the F-value for main effect of self-esteem among female students is 3.30 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This infers that female college and university students do not differ significantly across their career orientation in relation to self esteem.

It may also be observed from Table 4.45 that F-value for the main effect of parental employment is 10.09 which is significant at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students with low and high levels parental employment differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of self-esteem x parental employment is 2.47 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. These are indicative of the fact that effects of self esteem and parental employment are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B i.e. self-esteem and parental employment is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

4.8.3 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Self-Esteem and Parental Income

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by female college and university students with high and low levels of

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self-esteem and parental income were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and self-esteem and parental income are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 4.12 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are exhibited in Table 4.46.

Table 4.46

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SELF-ESTEEM X PARENTAL INCOME

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Self Esteem (A)	1	80.90	80.90	0.68
Parental Income (B)	1	1009.40	1009.40	8.58**
A x B	1	162.20	162.20	1.37
Within	476	55993.90	117.60	
Total	479	57246.40		

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.46 shows that the F-value for main effect of self-esteem among female students is 0.68 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female students do not differ significantly across their career orientation in relation to self-esteem.

It may also be observed from Table 4.46 that F-value for the main effect of parental income is 8.58 which is significant at 0.01 level. This infers that female students with low and high parental income differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of self-esteem x parental income is 1.37 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. These are indicative of the fact that effects of self-esteem and parental income are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differ-

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ences under joint influence of different levels of A and B i.e. self-esteem and parental income is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

4.8.4 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Self-Esteem and Parental Social Status

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by female college and university students with high and low levels of self-esteem and parental social status were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and self-esteem and parental social status are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 6.98 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are exhibited in Table 4.47.

Table 4.47

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SELF-ESTEEM X PARENTAL SOCIAL STATUS

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Self-Esteem (A)	1	39.70	39.70	0.35
Parental Social Status (B)	1	468.10	468.10	4.16*
A x B	1	34.10	34.10	0.30
Within	476	53466.10	112.30	
Total	479	54008.00		

*Significant at 0.05 level

The perusal of Table 4.47 shows that the F-value for main effect of self-esteem among female students is 0.35 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female students do not differ significantly across their career orientation in relation to self-esteem.

It may also be observed from Table 4.47 that F-value for the

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main effect of parental social status is 4.16 which is although significant at 0.05 level but could not attain significance at 0.01 level. This infers that female students with low and high parental social status differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of self-esteem x parental social status is 0.30 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. These are indicative of the fact that effects of self-esteem and parental social status are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B i.e. self-esteem and parental social status is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

4.8.5 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Achievement Motivation and Parental Education

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by female college and university students with high and low levels of achievement motivation and parental education were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and achievement motivation and parental education are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 4.23 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are shown in Table 4.48.

Table 4.48

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION X PARENTAL EDUCATION

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Achievement Motivation (A)	1	96.30	96.30	0.83
Parental Education (B)	1	1168.80	1168.80	10.12**
A X B	1	15.80	15.80	0.13
Within	476	54977.00	115.49	
Total	479	56257.90		

** Significant at 0.01 level

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The perusal of Table 4.48 shows that the F-value for main effect of achievement motivation among female students is 0.83 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female students do not differ significantly across their career orientation in relation to achievement motivation.

It may also be observed from Table 4.48 that F-value for the main effect of parental education is 10.12 which is significant at 0.01 level. This infers that female students with low and high and parental education differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of achievement motivation x parental education is 0.13 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. These are indicative of the fact that effects of achievement motivation and parental education are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B i.e. achievement motivation and parental education is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

4.8.6 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Achievement Motivation and Parental Employment

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by female college and university students with high and low levels of achievement motivation and parental employment were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and parental employment are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 5.46 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are displayed in Table 4.49.

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Table 4.49

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION X PARENTAL EMPLOYMENT

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Achievement Motivation (A)	1	397.90	397.90	2.73
Parental Employment (B)	1	345.10	345.10	2.37
A x B	1	18.80	18.80	0.12
Within	476	69333.40	145.65	
Total	479	70095.20		

The perusal of Table 4.49 shows that the F-value for main effect of achievement motivation among female students is 2.73 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female students do not differ significantly across their career orientation in relation to achievement motivation.

It may also be observed from Table 4.49 that F-value for the main effect of parental employment is 2.37 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This infers that female students with low and high parental employment do not differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of achievement motivation x parental employment is 0.12 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. These are indicative of the fact that effects of achievement motivation and parental employment are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B i.e. achievement motivation and parental employment is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

4.8.7 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Achievement Motivation and Parental Income

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by

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female college and university students with high and low levels of achievement motivation and parental income were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and achievement motivation and parental income are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 2.39 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are exhibited in Table 4.50.

Table 4.50

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION X PARENTAL INCOME

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Achievement Motivation (A)	1	8.00	8.00	0.06
Parental Income (B)	1	1202.80	1202.80	10.19**
A x B	1	572.00	572.00	4.84*
Within	476	56194.50	118.05	
Total	479	57977.30		

*Significant at 0.05 level

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.50 shows that the F-value for main effect of achievement motivation among female students is 0.06 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female students do not differ significantly across their career orientation in relation to achievement motivation.

It may also be observed from Table 4.50 that F-value for the main effect of parental income is 10.19 which is significant at 0.01 level. This infers that female students with low and high levels of parental income differ significantly in their career orientation.

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The F-value for the interactive effects of achievement motivation x parental income is 4.84 which is although significant at 0.05 level but could not attain significance at 0.01 level. These are indicative of the fact that effects of achievement motivation and parental income are dependent on each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B i.e. achievement motivation and parental income is not same and shows differences in career orientation.

4.8.8 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Achievement Motivation and Parental Social Status

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by female college and university students with high and low levels of achievement motivation and parental social status were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and achievement motivation and parental social status are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 4.56 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are exhibited in Table 4.51.

Table 4.51

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION X PARENTAL SOCIAL STATUS

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Achievement Motivation (A)	1	0.00	0.00	0.00
Parental Social Status (B)	1	1077.00	1077.00	9.55**
A x B	1	28.50	28.50	0.25
Within	476	53666.70	112.74	
Total	479	54772.20		

** Significant at 0.01 level

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The perusal of Table 4.51 shows that the F-value for main effect of achievement motivation among female students is 0.00 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female students do not differ significantly across their career orientation in relation to achievement motivation.

It may also be observed from Table 4.51 that F-value for the main effect of parental social status is 9.55 which is significant at 0.01 level. This infers that female students with high and low parental social status differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of achievement motivation x parental social status is 0.25 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. These are indicative of the fact that effects of achievement motivation and parental social status are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B i.e. achievement motivation and parental social status is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

4.8.9 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Locus of Control and Parental Education

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by female college and university students with internal and external locus of control and with high and low parental education were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and locus of control and parental education are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 6.68 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are exhibited in Table 4.52

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Table 4.52

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR LOCUS OF CONTROL X PARENTAL EDUCATION

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Locus of Control (A)	1	8.50	8.50	0.07
Parental Education (B)	1	1003.30	1003.30	8.82**
A x B	1	806.00	806.00	7.08**
Within	476	54160.10	113.78	
Total	479	55977.90		

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.52 shows that the F-value for main effect of locus of control among female students is 0.07 which is even insignificant at 0.05 level. This infers that female students do not differ significantly across their career orientation in relation to locus of control.

It may also be observed from Table 4.52 that F-value for the main effect of parental education is 8.82 which is significant at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students with low and high levels of parental education differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of locus of control x parental education is 7.08 which is significant at 0.01 level. These are indicative of the fact that effects of locus of control and parental education are dependent on each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B i.e. locus of control and parental education is not same and shows differences in career orientation.

4.8.10 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Locus of Control and Parental Employment

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by female college and university students with internal and

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external locus of control and with high and low parental employment were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and locus of control and parental employment are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 6.98 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are shown in Table 4.53

Table 4.53

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR LOCUS OF CONTROL X PARENTAL EMPLOYMENT

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Locus of Control (A)	1	193.80	193.80	1.61
Parental Employment (B)	1	1038.00	1038.00	8.64**
A x B	1	416.30	416.30	3.46
Within	476	57156.60	120.07	
Total	479	58804.70		

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.53 shows that the F-value for main effect of locus of control among female students is 1.61 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female students do not differ significantly across their career orientation in relation to locus of control.

It may also be observed from Table 4.53 that F-value for the main effect of parental employment is 8.64 which is significant at 0.01 level. This infers that female students with low and high levels of parental employment differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of locus of control x parental employment is 3.46 which is insignificant at 0.05 level. These are indicative of the fact that effects of locus of control and parental employment are independent of each other

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in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B i.e. locus of control and parental employment is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

4.8.11 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Locus of Control and Parental Income

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by female college and university students with internal and external locus of control and with high and low parental income were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and locus of control and parental income are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 5.23 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are exhibited in Table 4.54.

Table 4.54

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR LOCUS OF CONTROL X PARENTAL INCOME

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Locus of Control (A)	1	16.50	16.50	0.14
Parental Income(B)	1	328.40	328.40	2.82
A x B	1	71.30	71.30	0.61
Within	476	55377.60	116.33	
Total	479	55793.80		

The perusal of Table 4.54 shows that the F-value for main effect of locus of control among female students is 0.14 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This infers that female students do not differ significantly across their career orientation in relation to locus of control.

It may also be observed from Table 4.54 that F-value for the main effect of parental income is 2.82 which is insignificant

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even at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students with low and high levels of parental income do not differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of locus of control and parental income is 0.61 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. These are indicative of the fact that effects of locus of control and parental income are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B i.e. locus of control and parental income is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

4.8.12 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Locus of Control and Parental Social Status

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by female college and university students with internal and external locus of control and with high and low parental education were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and locus of control and parental social status are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 5.36 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are shown in Table 4.55.

Table 4.55

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR LOCUS OF CONTROL X PARENTAL SOCIAL STATUS

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Locus of Control (A)	1	45.60	45.60	0.41
Parental Social Status (B)	1	1000.20	1000.20	9.01**
A x B	1	730.10	730.10	6.57*
Within	476	52849.80	111.02	
Total	479	54625.70		

*Significant at 0.05 level

** Significant at 0.01 level

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The perusal of Table 4.55 shows that the F-value for main effect of locus of control among female students is 0.41 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This shows that female students do not differ significantly across their career orientation in relation to locus of control.

It may also be observed from Table 4.55 that F-value for the main effect of parental social status is 9.01 which is significant at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students with low and high parental social status differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of locus of control x parental social status is 6.57 which is although significant at 0.05 level but could not attain significance at 0.01 level. These are indicative of the fact that effects of locus of control and parental social status are dependent on each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B i.e. locus of control and parental social status is not same and shows differences in career orientation.

4.8.13 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Parental Attitude and Parental Education

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by female college and university students with favourable and unfavourable parental attitude and with high and low parental education were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and parental attitude and parental education are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 2.54 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are exhibited in Table 4.56.

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Table 4.56

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR PARENTAL ATTITUDE X PARENTAL EDUCATION

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Parental Attitude (A)	1	9.60	9.60	0.06
Parental Education (B)	1	705.70	705.70	5.06*
A x B	1	13.30	13.30	0.09
Within	476	66336.90	139.36	
Total	479	67065.50		

*Significant at 0.05 level

The perusal of Table 4.56 shows that the F-value for main effect of parental attitude among female students is 0.06 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This infers that female students do not differ significantly across their career orientation in relation to parental attitude.

It may also be observed from Table 4.56 that F-value for the main effect of parental education is 5.06 which is although significant at 0.05 level but could not attain significance at 0.01 level. This shows that female students with low and high levels of parental education differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of parental attitude x parental education is 0.09 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. These are indicative of the fact that effects of parental attitude and parental education are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B i.e. parental attitude and parental education is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

4.8.14 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Parental Attitude and Parental Employment

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The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by female college and university students with favourable and unfavourable parental attitude and with high and low parental employment were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and parental attitude and parental employment are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 4.19 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are depicted in Table 4.57.

Table 4.57

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR PARENTAL ATTITUDE X PARENTAL EMPLOYMENT

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Parental Attitude (A)	1	397.90	397.90	2.73
Parental Employment (B)	1	1345.10	1345.10	9.23**
A x B	1	18.80	18.80	0.12
Within	476	69333.40	145.60	
Total	479	710952.20		

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.57 shows that the F-value for main effect of parental attitude among female students is 2.73 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This depicts that female students do not differ significantly across their career orientation in relation to parental attitude.

It may also be observed from Table 4.57 that F-value for the main effect of parental employment is 9.23 which is significant at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students with low and high levels of parental employment differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of parental attitude x parental employment is 0.12 which is insignificant even at

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0.05 level. These are indicative of the fact that effects of parental attitude and parental employment are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B i.e. parental attitude and parental employment is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

4.8.15 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Parental Attitude and Parental Income.

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by female college and university students with favourable and unfavourable parental attitude and with high and low parental income were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and parental attitude and parental income are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 5.21 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are displayed in Table 4.58.

Table 4.58

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR PARENTAL ATTITUDE X PARENTAL INCOME

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Parental Attitude (A)	1	1101.80	1101.80	7.76**
Parental Income (B)	1	1043.80	1043.80	7.35**
A x B	1	1265.50	1265.50	8.91**
Within	476	67554.40	141.92	
Total	479	70965.50		

** Significant at 0.01 level

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The perusal of Table 4.58 shows that the F-value for main effect of parental attitude among female students is 7.76 which is significant at 0.01 level. This shows that female students differ significantly across their career orientation in relation to parental attitude.

It may also be observed from Table 4.58 that F-value for the main effect of parental income is 7.35 which is also significant at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students with low and high levels of parental income differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of parental attitude x parental income is 8.91 which is significant at 0.01 level. These are indicative of the fact that effects of parental attitude and parental income are dependent on each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B i.e. parental attitude x and parental income is not same and shows differences in career orientation.

4.8.16 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Parental Attitude and Parental Social Status

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by female college and university students with favourable and unfavourable parental attitude and with high and low parental social status were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and parental attitude and parental social status are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 5.12 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are exhibited in Table 4.59.

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Table 4.59

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR PARENTAL ATTITUDE X PARENTAL SOCIAL STATUS

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Parental Attitude (A)	1	163.30	163.30	1.19
Parental Social Status (B)	1	634.80	634.80	4.64*
AXB	1	5.20	5.20	0.38
Within	476	65026.70	136.60	
Total	479	65830.00		

*Significant at 0.05 level

The perusal of Table 4.59 shows that the F-value for main effect of parental attitude among female students is 1.19 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female students do not differ significantly across their career orientation in relation to parental attitude.

It may also be observed from Table 4.59 that F-value for the main effect of parental social status is 4.64 which is although significant at 0.05 level but could not attain significance at 0.01 level. This infers that female students with low and high levels of parental social status differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of parental attitude x parental social status is 0.38 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. These are indicative of the fact that effects of parental attitude and parental social status are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B i.e. parental attitude and parental social status is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

4.8.17 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Intelligence and Parental Education

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained

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by female college and university students with internal and external locus of control and with high and low parental education were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and locus of control and parental education are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 6.68 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are exhibited in Table 4.60.

Table 4.60

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR INTELLIGENCE X PARENTAL EDUCATION

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Intelligence (A)	1	35.80	35.80	0.28
Parental Education (B)	1	893.80	893.80	7.07**
A x B	1	100.10	100.10	0.79
Within	476	60134.60	126.33	
Total	479	61164.30		

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.60 shows that the F-value for main effect of intelligence among female students is 0.28 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This infers that female students do not differ significantly across their career orientation in relation to intelligence.

It may also be observed from Table 4.60 that F-value for the main effect of parental education is 7.07 which is significant at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students with low and high parental education differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of intelligence x parental education is 0.79 which is insignificant even at 0.05

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level. These are indicative of the fact that effects of intelligence and parental education are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B i.e. intelligence and parental education is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

4.8.18 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Intelligence and Parental Employment

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by female college and university students with high and low intelligence and parental employment were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and intelligence and parental employment are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 5.68 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are exhibited in Table 4.61.

Table 4.61

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR INTELLIGENCE X PARENTAL EMPLOYMENT

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Intelligence (A)	1	118.00	118.00	0.88
Parental Employment (B)	1	1480.00	1480.00	11.16**
A x B	1	58.80	58.80	0.44
Within	476	63131.10	132.60	
Total	479	64787.90		

** Significant at 0.01 level

The perusal of Table 4.61 shows that the F-value for main effect of intelligence among female students is 0.88 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This shows that female students do not differ significantly across their career orientation in relation to intelligence.

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It may also be observed from Table 4.61 that F-value for the main effect of parental employment is 11.16 which is significant at 0.01 level. This infers that female students with low and high parental employment differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of intelligence x parental employment is 0.44 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. These are indicative of the fact that effects of intelligence and parental employment are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B i.e. intelligence and parental employment is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

4.8.19 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Intelligence and Parental Income

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by female college and university students with high and low intelligence and parental income were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and intelligence and parental income are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 4.58 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are exhibited in Table 4.62.

Table 4.62

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR INTELLIGENCE X PARENTAL INCOME

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Intelligence (A)	1	9.60	9.60	0.07
Parental Income (B)	1	61.60	61.60	0.47
A X B	1	472.00	472.00	3.66
Within	476	61320.70	128.82	
Total	479	61863.90		

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The perusal of Table 4.62 shows that the F-value for main effect of intelligence among female students is 0.07 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This infers that female students do not differ significantly across their career orientation in relation to intelligence.

It may also be observed from Table 4.62 that F-value for the main effect of parental income is 0.47 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This indicates that female students with low and high parental income do not differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of intelligence x parental income is 3.66 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. These are indicative of the fact that effects of intelligence and parental social status are independent of each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B i.e. intelligence and parental income is same and does not show differences in career orientation.

4.8.20 Career Orientation among Female College and University Students in Relation to Intelligence and Parental Social Status

The data in respect of career orientation scores obtained by female college and university students with high and low intelligence and parental social status were analyzed using the technique of analysis of variance. In which the variable of career orientation is dependent variable and intelligence and parental social status are independent variables. The investigator proceeded with the analysis of variance after fulfilling the required assumptions. While testing the data for homogeneity of variance the value of chi-square came out to be 3.57 for 3 df at 0.05 level indicating variance within the groups as homogeneous. The results of analysis of variance are presented in Table 4.63.

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Table 4.63

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR INTELLIGENCE X PARENTAL SOCIAL STATUS

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Intelligence (A)	1	13.70	13.70	0.11
Parental Social Status (B)	1	813.80	813.80	6.58*
A x B	1	501.10	501.10	4.05*
Within	476	58824.30	123.58	
Total	479	60152.9		

*Significant at 0.05 level

The perusal of Table 4.63 shows that the F-value for main effect of intelligence among female students is 0.11 which is insignificant even at 0.05 level. This infers that female students do not differ significantly across their career orientation in relation to intelligence.

It may also be observed from Table 4.63 that F-value for the main effect of parental social status is 6.58 which is although significant at 0.05 level but could not attain significance at 0.01 level. This indicates that female students with low and high parental social status differ significantly in their career orientation.

The F-value for the interactive effects of intelligence x parental social status is 4.05 which is although significant at 0.05 level but could not attain significance at 0.01 level. These are indicative of the fact that effects of intelligence and parental social status are dependent on each other in explaining career orientation among female students. In other words the nature of differences under joint influence of different levels of A and B i.e. intelligence and parental social status is not same and shows differences in career orientation.

4.9 TESTING OF HYPOTHESES

On the basis of the results of the study, as reported in the preceding section, testing of hypotheses was made as reported under:

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i) Since the main effect of type of institutional (College and University) turned out to be non-significant, in all the analyses for urban college and university students and hence the hypothesis "There will be significant difference among female college and university students of urban areas of Jammu region in their career orientation" is not accepted.

ii) Since the main effect of type of institution (College and University) turned out to be non-significant, in all the analyses for rural college and university students (except in the combination for institutional level x self-esteem) hence the hypothesis "There will be significant difference among female college and university students of rural areas of Jammu region in their career orientation" is not accepted.

iii) Since the main effect of type of institution (College and University) turned out to be non-significant, in all the analyses for rural and urban college and university students hence the hypothesis "There will be significant difference among female college and university students of rural areas of Jammu region in their career orientation" is not accepted

iv) Since the main effect of residential background (Rural and Urban) turned out to be significant, in all the analyses (except in the combination of institutional level x residential background x intelligence) hence the hypothesis "There will be significant difference in career orientation among female college students of rural and urban areas of Jammu region." is accepted.

v) The main effect of self-esteem came out to be significant in all the analyses (except in self-esteem x achievement motivation, self-esteem x locus of control, self-esteem x parental education, self-esteem x parental employment, self-esteem x parental income, self-esteem x parental social status) hence the hypothesis "The female students with high and low levels of self-esteem will differ significantly in their career orientation" is accepted.

vi) The main effect of achievement motivation came out to be significant in all the analyses (except in achievement motivation x locus of control, achievement motivation x

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parental education, achievement motivation x parental employment, achievement motivation x parental income, achievement motivation x parental social status) hence the hypothesis "The female students with high and low levels of achievement motivation will differ significantly in their career orientation" is accepted.

vii) The main effect of locus of control came out to be significant in all the analyses (except in institutional level x residential background x locus of control, locus of control x achievement motivation, locus of control x parental attitude, locus of control x intelligence, locus of control x parental employment, locus of control x parental income, locus of control x parental social status) hence the hypothesis "The female students with internal and external locus of control will differ significantly in their career orientation" is accepted.

viii) The main effect of parental attitude came out to be significant in all the analyses (except in parental attitude x parental education, parental attitude x parental employment, parental attitude x parental social status) hence the hypothesis "The female college and university students with favourable and unfavourable parental attitude will differ significantly in their career orientation" is accepted.

ix) The main effect of intelligence came out to be significant in all the analyses (except in intelligence x parental education, intelligence x parental employment, intelligence x parental income, intelligence x parental social status, intelligence x parental attitude, intelligence x locus of control) hence the hypothesis "The female students with high and low levels of intelligence will differ significantly in their career orientation" is accepted.

x) The main effect of parental education came out to be significant in all the analyses hence the hypothesis "The female students with high and low levels of parental education will differ significantly in their career orientation" is accepted.

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xi) The main effect of parental employment came out to be significant in all the analyses (except in parental employment x intelligence, parental employment x achievement motivation) hence the hypothesis "The female students with high and low levels of parental employment will differ significantly in their career orientation" is accepted.

xii) The main effect of parental income came out to be significant in all the analyses (except in parental income x intelligence and parental income x locus of control) hence the hypothesis "The female students with high and low levels of parental income will differ significantly in their career orientation" is accepted.

xiii) The main effect of parental social status came out to be significant in all the analyses hence the hypothesis "The female students with high and low levels of parental social status will differ significantly in their career orientation" is accepted.

4.10 CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions can be drawn on the basis of the results of the study:

i) There is no significant difference in the career orientation of the female college and university students of urban areas. This indicates that female college and university students of urban areas do not show difference in the career orientation.

ii) There is no significant difference in the career orientation of the female college and university students of rural areas. This infers that female college and university students of rural areas do not show difference in the career orientation.

iii) There is significant difference in the career orientation of female students belonging to rural and urban areas. This depicts that female students of urban and rural areas show difference in the career orientation. Female students of urban areas have high career orientation as compared to their rural counterparts.

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iv) There is significant difference in career orientation of female students having high self-esteem from their low self-esteem counterparts. This indicates that female students with high and low self-esteem show difference in their career orientation. Female students with high self-esteem have high career orientation and those with low self-esteem have low career orientation irrespective of rural or urban background.

v) The female students having high achievement motivation differs significantly from their low achievement motivation counterparts. This indicates that female students with high and low achievement motivation show difference in their career orientation. Female students with high achievement motivation have high career orientation and those with low achievement motivation have low career orientation irrespective of rural or urban background.

vi) The female students having internal locus of control differ significantly in career orientation from those having external locus of control. This indicates that female students having external and internal locus of control show difference in their career orientation. Female students with external locus of control have low career orientation where as those with internal locus of control have high career orientation irrespective of rural or urban background.

vii) The female students with favourable and unfavourable parental attitude towards education and employment of girls differ significantly in their career orientation. This indicates that female students having favourable and unfavourable parental attitude show difference in their career orientation. Female students with favourable parental attitude have high career orientation where as those with unfavourable parental attitude have low career orientation irrespective of rural or urban background.

viii) There is significant difference in the career orientation of female students having high and low intelligence. Those female students having high IQ score have high career orientation.

ix) There is significant difference in the career orientation among female students having high and low parental social

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status. This infers that female college and university students with high and low parental status have high and low career orientation respectively.

x) The female students with high and low levels of parental education differ significantly in their career orientation. Those with high parental education being more career oriented than their counterparts with low career orientation.

xi) There is significant difference in the career orientation of female students with high parental employment than those with low parental employment. Students with good parental employment are highly career oriented.

xii) The high income group female students differ significantly in their career orientation from the low income group students. The high income group female students have high career orientation where as those female students coming from the low income group have low career orientation.

4.11 DISCUSSION

The results are suggestive of the fact that there is no significant difference in the mean career orientation of female students either perusing under graduate or post graduate courses (i.e., studying in college and university). The above stated results can be seen in the context of following related research evidence, Luzzo (1993) and Kumari (1996) supported the results of present study that under graduate and post graduate students generally have the same level of confidence in their ability to perform variety of career decision-making behaviour. Farmer and Wough (1999), Siann and Collaghan (2001), Raffaele and Crawford (2002) found that women in both types of educational institutions (i.e., college and university) are equally interested in family and career. Anitha (2006), Wizarat and Arya (2007) in their study concluded that the relationship between availability of disciplinary choices and women's ability to access them are not directly related nor are they dependent on women's academic achievement. Pursuing a career does not necessarily redefine her traditional familial responsibilities. On the contrary some researchers viewed that woman, who pursued 'high level' careers

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and continued greater occupational aspirations, appeared to value high quality career roles over family roles. Kolbenschlag (1979), Baber and Monoghan (1980), Faver (1982), Strange and Rea (1983), Metzler (1985), O' Brien and Fassinger (1993), Fernandez (2006) and Haley (2006) viewed that there is significant difference between the sex role classification of women in female dominated majors and women in male dominated majors.

The results are also suggestive of the fact that the career orientation of female college and university students is influenced by social variables, under study namely, parental education, parental employment, family income and parental social status. The results are to be seen in the context of some related research evidence. For example career orientation of female college students is positively correlated with mother's educational level and employed women prefer a higher level of education for their daughters than achieved by them. (Ries, 1977; Mohan, 1989; Schulenberg et al.,1991; Kaur, 2007). Sharma (2002) believed that social predictors of career orientation were mainly in the domain of parental education, parental employment, family income and parental social status of female students. Family background factors have been found to be associated with career development such as parents' socio-economic status and their educational level (Lankard, 1995; Kumar, 2001; Kalra and Pyari, 2004). This finding is further supported by Mortimer et al. (1992) and DeRidder (1990) who found that lower levels of parental education retard adolescents career development or occupational aspirations. The results are further supported by the view that socio-economic factors such as parental occupation and family income were significantly associated with adaptive behaviour of children (Dyer, 1992; Rao and Rao, 1988; Ries, 1977; Lata and Chikara, 1995).

These findings supported the hypothesis that the female college and university students with high and low levels of parental education, parental employment, parental social status and family income differ significantly in their career orientation.

Also the results of the present study are suggestive of the fact that the female college and university students with high and low levels of self-esteem, achievement motivation,

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intelligence, and students with internal and external locus of control differ significantly in their career orientation. The results may be seen in the context of the some research related evidence. Tanwar (1987) found college females with more positive self image are more career oriented while maintaining their family orientation. According to Sharma (2002) self-esteem and achievement orientation play significant role in determining career orientation among female students both at college and university level. Earlier Korman (1970) and Gordon (1978) concluded that high self-esteem persons are motivated to perform well on a task in order to maintain their self-image, competence and low self-esteem persons on the other hand are not motivated to perform well since poor performance for them is consistence with their self-image off relative in competence. Also high self-esteem women preferred careers in female and male dominated occupation. The findings are also supported by more researchers (Kumari and Sethi, 1990; Konek et al., 1994; Kumari, 1996; Kaur, G. 2007; Kaur, S. 2007), who viewed that college and university girls with high self-esteem had higher career values and lower family values and were willing to tolerate workloads and stressors. Pulkkinen (2002) explained it in other words that high career orientation was explained by personality characteristics indicating self-control of emotions i.e. constructiveness, stability and compliance where as low career orientation was explained by characteristics indicating low self-control of emotional anxiety, liability and aggressiveness. Koch (1998) and Singh (2006) explored that high self-esteem students were hard working than their low self-esteem counterparts. In another study Konek et al., (1994) reported that income level, self-esteem, respect, cohesion and autonomy were major advantages for dual career women and hence they were willing to tolerate work loads and stresses.

Thus these researches support the findings that female college and university students having high and low levels of self-esteem, achievement motivation, locus of control and intelligence differ in their career orientation.

The results of the study indicated that favourable parental attitude enhances career orientation in female college and

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university students. Subramanian (2007), Gupta (2007), Anand and Banot (2007) supported these results also inferred that a majority of the women who come from socio economically and culturally privileged middle class families, placed, high value on their daughters' education and encouraged their career ambitions. On the contrary Pande (2006) found that many parents still see girls' education as leading her to better mother and wife and hence lays emphasis on traditional education. Purang and Sharma (2000) indicated that highly educated parents are highly demanding and hence encourage their children to aspire for more challenging goals in life. Esterman (1995) and Gibbs (1995) also believed that parents' expectation is the most influential factor affecting youth's decisions to pursue higher education. Montogomery (1992) and Schmitt et al. (2008) noted that females view their career choices as reflective of interests that stemmed from family influences and educational opportunity. Pleck and Japsen (1992) also worked in the same area and found that adolescents from enmeshed family may have difficulty mastering career development tasks because they are unable to distinguish their own goals from parental goals and expectations. Nepper (2003) and Keller (2004) revealed that parental behaviour is significantly related to career development of young female students.

This finding, that the female college and university students having favourable and unfavourable attitude towards girl's education and employment differ significantly in their career orientation, is supported by the above research studies.

Thus the findings of the present study pertaining to career orientation vis-a-vis psychological variables self-esteem, achievement motivation, locus of control, parental attitude towards education and employment of girls and intelligence, and social variables namely parental education, parental employment, family income and parental social status have a theoretical and empirical support from the related literature and these are logical and relevant to explain career orientation of female college and university students.

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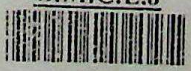

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